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THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

For the Month of *January*, 1780.

Political Annals of the present United Colonies, from their Settlement to the Peace of 1763: By George Chalmers, Esq. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Bowen.

Historical accounts of the colonies have been formerly published by various writers, who confining themselves entirely to a recital of facts, and those not always supported by the most authentic information, never traced the principles of policy, which it is the province of history to elucidate. In the work now before us, an extremely different, and far more interesting scene, is opened to the view. We there behold the progress of those states distinctly related from their earliest infancy, the origin and nature of their respective constitutions ascertained with precision, and the instructive connexion of causes and effects developed through all the consequential events in their government.

In the prosecution of this arduous undertaking, the author industriously searched for materials that had been either overlooked or disregarded by former writers. To supply that void, which had arisen from the difficulty of access to the provincial records, he studied the acts of assemblies, 'the truest of histories,' as he justly styles them, that often contradict, explain, or confirm, the general accounts. He likewise perused printed collections of state papers, before unattended to, which throw considerable light on many passages, hitherto dark and entangled. But unable, even with all those aids, to satisfy his own judgement, he formed the design of applying for access to the Plantation office; which, having obtained, he had the plea-

sure to discover a rich mine of historic materials. He informs us, that such an ample repository of evidence, respecting the affairs of the colonies, was now laid open, as few nations possess, and is sufficient to gratify even the utmost desire of an antiquary.

In the former histories of the British colonies, the authors had injudiciously followed a geographical, and not a chronological arrangement, beginning with the northernmost colony, and thence proceeding regularly southward. Mr. Chalmers, however, has very properly taken a different course: he begins with the most ancient, and treats of the several colonies according to the order in which they were either planted or acquired. By this method, the progress of our colonization is not only displayed in its natural course, but the history of the earliest reflects light on all the subsequent provinces.

The author sets out with observing, that it cannot be affirmed of these colonies, as it is of European nations, that their origin is uncertain or known; that their ancient history is fabulous and dark; or that their original institutions have come down the current of time, loaded with the disputations of the antiquary. Our first acquaintance with those countries is traced to the expedition of Cabot, who was employed by Henry VII. to explore the North American coast. Elizabeth granted some patents of colonization, but no settlements were made till the reign of her successor, who seems to have been actuated with a strong desire of carrying those projects into execution. On the 6th of April, 1606, he therefore granted letters patent, under the great seal, to sir Thomas Gates, and his associates, for settling a colony in Virginia. All those territories in America, which either belonged to that monarchy, or were not then possessed by any Christian prince or people, lying between the 34th and 45th degrees of northern latitude, were conferred on them. The colonists were divided, at their own desire, into two companies. One, consisting of adventurers of the city of London, was called the first colony; and the other, composed of merchants of Bristol, and other western towns, was named the second. The former was required to establish its settlement between the 34th and 41st degrees of latitude; the latter between the 38th and 45th degrees; yet so that the colony which should be last formed, shall not be planted within one hundred miles of the prior establishment.

The adventurers were empowered to transport thither so many English subjects as should willingly accompany them, with provision for their use, and arms for their defence, without payment of customs for seven years. It was declared, that the colonists and their children should at all times enjoy the same liberties,

ties, within any other dominions of that prince, as if they had remained or were born within the realm. Yet, for the better government of the emigrants, there was established for each of the projected settlements, a council, consisting of thirteen, which were to be appointed and removed by the royal instructions; and these were empowered to govern the colonies according to such laws as should be given under the sign manual and privy seal of England. Two other boards were formed in England, which were in like manner to consist of thirteen persons, and to be appointed equally by the king: and these were invested with the superior direction of affairs with regard to the administration of the colonies. For the benefit of the adventurers, licence was given to them to search for mines of gold, silver, and copper; yielding one-fifth of the two former metals, and one-fifteenth of the latter, to the king. They were empowered to make a coin that should pass current as well among the colonists as the natives. The president and council, within the colonies, were authorized to repel those who should attempt to settle or traffic within their jurisdiction, without their authority; to seize their persons and effects, till they should pay a duty of two and a half in the hundred of the value, if a subject; but five, if an alien: and these taxes were to be applied for one and twenty years to the use of the adventurers, but afterwards to be paid into the royal exchequer.

Such then is the substance of the most ancient colonial charter, which comprehended all the present colonies, from New-England to Carolina exclusive: and from which the most important privileges have at all times been claimed. Yet little was there in it, alas! favourable to the interests of freedom, or declaratory of the general privileges of the subject. Vain was it to assure the colonists of being considered as Englishmen, if they were by the same instrument deprived of English liberties: and what rights could a people be said to enjoy, who, without possessing the smallest particle of self-government, were at once subjected to the will of the prince; to the edicts of a council they did not appoint; to the ordinances of a commercial association over which they had no controul.

While the council of the first colony was occupied during the summer of 1606, in procuring emigrants to accomplish the great object of its wishes, James was equally employed in a business the most arduous of any; in compiling a code of laws for an infant people. On the 20th of November of that year he issued "orders and instructions for the colonies" under the privy-seal of England. And they merit the greatest attention; because they are explanatory of the charter, as well as characteristic of that monarch.

He invested the general superintendence of the colonies in a council in England, "composed of a few persons of consideration and talents." He ordered, that the word and service of God should be preached and used according to the rites and doc-

trines of the church of England. Having thus provided for the interests of religion, by interweaving into the Virginian constitution the establishment of that church, his next cares were turned to the interests of the state. Both the legislative and executive powers within the colonies were invested in the presidents and councils, without any mention of the representatives of the people or allusion to them: and they were empowered to make laws, and to constitute officers, for their government; yet, with this proviso, that such ordinances should not touch any man's life or member, should only continue in force till made void by the king or his council, should be in substance consonant to the laws of England. With a cautious jealousy he required that none should be suffered to withdraw the allegiance of the colonists from the king and his successors; and he commanded, that all offenders, contrary to this essential rule, should be imprisoned till reformation, or sent to England to receive condign punishment. Tumults, mutiny, and rebellion, murder and incest, were to be punished with death; and for these offences the criminal was to be tried by a jury: he ordered smaller crimes to be punished summarily at the discretion of the president and council. And he required that no person shall remain in the colony without taking the oath of obedience. Lands were to be holden within the colony as the same estates were enjoyed in England. With a humanity and justice that did honour to that legislator, he ordered that all persons should kindly treat the heathen people in those parts, and use all proper means to draw them to the true service and knowledge of God, and to induce them to enter into a sociable traffic. And in these legislative instructions there was an express reservation, that as the colonies should increase, the king and his successors might ordain farther laws, so that they were consonant to the jurisprudence of England.

The instructions of that monarch contain several things, says the historian of that colony, of an extraordinary nature and extremely arbitrary. But there is not a more common mistake of writers than to judge of the past by the manners of their own times, and to apply principles of law, acknowledged when they write, to transactions of former times, when very dissimilar opinions prevailed. The orders before mentioned are however extremely interesting. They demonstrate as well how unlike were the sentiments of those days to the present, as what the original constitution of Virginia really was, and how much of the law of England was then introduced: they display the legislative talents of that learned prince, and evince his real views with regard to those establishments however mistaken. Yet it seems certain, that though such exertions of prerogative were very common in that age, a king of England could no more exercise a legislative authority over English subjects, because they had removed to a distant territory of the state, than over Englishmen within the realm. For the privileges of both had been derived from the same great charter. Such then was the rotten
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foundation whereon was erected, with no great skill, the superstructure of the Virginian immunities and laws.

It appears that the original administration of Virginia was an oligarchy, which soon produced all the inconveniences attendant on that form of government; till the number of members in the provincial council was increased. Even after some changes in their constitution, the inhabitants of this colony were far from enjoying tranquility.

‘It is impossible to view mankind, says our author, in a political situation, more truly deplorable than were the Virginians during the foregoing sad period of their story. They were subjected to the arbitrary orders of their prince; to the interested ordinances of a corporation within the realm; to the edicts of a haughty governor; and they enjoyed none of those liberties which Englishmen claim as their birthright. They were assuredly reduced to the condition of a conquered people: and we shall soon hear the secretary of state asserting, in the house of commons, “that Virginia was a country got by conquest, and to be governed as such by the king’s prerogative.” But it is altogether impossible to support the notion of conquest. For, none was made or attempted over the aborigines; and it is utterly incongruous, to speak of men, who were sent to conquer, as subjugated to the will of the conqueror. The colonists, indeed, had been hitherto ruled rather as soldiers in garrison, by martial law; or as the humble slaves of a despot; than as English subjects, who settled in a desert territory of the crown, and who were justly entitled to possess former privileges, as fully as so distant a situation admitted. Yet it will be somewhat difficult to discover, in this most ancient portion of colonial annals, peculiar immunities, or provincial authority, exclusive of parliamentary jurisdiction.’

The events related in the third chapter, are, the first assembly called, wives sent to the colonists, convicts transported as servants, tobacco first imported, taxes imposed, the Virginian constitution established, &c. The province of Virginia being in great disorder, a writ of quo warranto was issued in 1623, and the patents were cancelled.

Our author makes the following observations on the state of Virginia during the period above mentioned.

‘James I. notwithstanding his prejudices and mistakes, may be justly considered as the father of the English colonies; which, but for his peculiar spirit, had probably never been planted. Yet he assuredly considered them as countries acquired by conquest: he inferred from what was neither true in principle nor fact, that they ought to be holden of his person independent of his crown or political capacity, and might be ruled consequently according to his good will, by prerogative. And he endeavour-

ed, according to the strange œconomy of his reign, to convert them into a mere private estate, descendible to his personal heirs. But, happily, neither his opinion nor his practice changed the allegiance of the emigrants, the nature of the relation of the plantations to the sovereign state, or the laws: and the strong resolutions of the commons, with regard to both, would have inspired wisdom into the councils of a prince less fond of his own opinions. Though he had often declared, by charters, that the colonists and their posterity should be considered as much English subjects in their new as they had been in their ancient settlements; yet it was reserved for modern times to see and to claim all the important rights deducible from that circumstance alone: and they did not, in fact, possess English liberties during that wretched period of their story. Too long were they governed by martial law, by the ordinances of a corporation in England, by the edicts of governors, by the royal orders: and, after they had acquired property, they did not enjoy what is of more real importance, personal security, freedom of thought, and of action. They supplicated the king, in the language of universal complaint, to be restored to their ancient liberties: they petitioned the parliament in the day of their miseries. Yet they applied to both without effect. The colonists sighed, during that reign, for a government of law, accompanied with temper and attention to the rights of men and the privileges of citizens. Their posterity have fully enjoyed what the original adventurers prayed for in vain. But prosperity and enjoyment are too seldom, alas! the best instructors of man in the lessons of gratitude and content.

In the subsequent chapter, the historian relates the settlement of Northern Virginia, otherwise named New England, which was planted by an obscure sect, that had acquired the appellation of *Brownists*. The following is the account which he delivers of those emigrants.

‘ So early as the year 1602, they had formed a separate society at Yarmouth, and began to propagate their peculiar tenets; but, attracting immediately the notice of the vigilant administration of Elizabeth, the persecution that ensued obliged them to remove, though with the greatest difficulty and danger, to Leyden. Yet, after twelve years unmolested residence in Holland, they became unhappy in their situation, because they foresaw the destruction of their society in the toleration they enjoyed; and determined to seek new adventures in America. With this design they sent agents to treat with the Virginian company for a grant of land within its jurisdiction. They offered to transport themselves at their own expence, would the company procure them the royal licence, under the great seal, for the free enjoyment of their own notions in religion. But James, having already established the church of England in Virginia, refused to grant their desire; though he assured them, that

that while they lived peaceably he would not disturb their repose. They were somewhat disconcerted: yet, continuing unhappy in a country where they were obscure and unpersecuted, they at length resolved to trust to his verbal declarations. They procured a considerable tract of land from that corporation, which then gave every aid towards the settlement of Virginia. They entered into a commercial association with several merchants of London, in order to prosecute a common trade for mutual advantage: and having now procured two vessels, by the aid of these men, of greater wealth and importance, they sailed from England in August 1620, and arrived on the American coast in the subsequent November. They immediately discovered that they had been carried to the northward of their destination, and beyond the jurisdiction of Virginia. But the season of the year, as well as the weakness of their condition, prevented their removal southward in search of the great object of their fatigues and dangers. And here they determined to put an end to a voyage long and disastrous, which would have discouraged any other than men animated with peculiar motives of ambition, religion, or interest.

The more sagacious beheld, with concern, "that some rather inclining to faction were not well affected to unity," and they foresaw that religion alone, without the authority of government, would not be sufficient to preserve peace, or even the appearance of society: they proposed therefore a *covenant*, which was signed before they landed, on the 11th of November, 1620, by the heads of families and freemen. It recited: that they had undertaken to plant a colony for the glory of God, and for the honour of their king and country: and, professing their loyalty to their sovereign lord king James, they combined themselves in a body politic, for the making of equal laws for the general good." Near Cape Cod, on the coast of New England, about one hundred and twenty persons landed, within the jurisdiction of the council of Plymouth: and from this circumstance probably they called the place of their settlement New Plymouth.

Our author observes, that of all the colonies, none seems to have increased so slowly in population and in power as New Plymouth. Its soil was the most barren of any; its religion was unsocial; and its views being originally turned rather to the establishment of a factory for trade, than to the planting of a desert, favoured the spirit of monopoly, which is generally unpropitious to every laudable exertion. Such appears to have been the perverseness of this colony, that in the reign of Charles I. they presumed to exclude Englishmen from fishing on the coasts of New England.

Amid all its disasters (says our author), none gave more real concern to the colony of New Plymouth than the want of a title to the country which it possessed. It had built a town, erected a

citadel for its defence, and laid out farms for its support; yet it had no other claim than what mere occupancy confers, in opposition to municipal rights. During ten years it had solicited a grant without success, owing chiefly to the infidelity of its agents. The council of Plymouth, at length, in January, 1630, conveyed, as well a considerable territory around the original settlement, as a tract of land on the banks of the river Kenebeck. It conferred not only various privileges, but power to make ordinances for the government of colonists, *godly and sober*; on this condition, that they should not be contrary to the laws of England. Yet this patent was not confirmed by the crown, though the contrary has been affirmed by colonial historians. And now the emigrants, who were increased by this time to three hundred, could wish for no better title to their lands, because their possession was clothed with the legal right. But they still doubted the validity of their authority with regard to government. For, however comprehensive were the expressions of their charter, the powers of jurisdiction could not be communicated by the council of Plymouth; because they had been bestowed on it and its successors, for special purposes, and it could not grant away, by parcels, a trust so important, without the consent of the king who conferred it. Nevertheless this defect was not probably altogether unfavourable to the real interest of the settlers, or their happiness: their administration was actuated generally by principles of greater moderation and good sense, than some of their neighbours; and it was more conciliatory, and less oppressive. It was not till about this period that they had any person chosen and appropriated to the office of pastor: and, having now established a church, they professed the same faith with that of the reformed societies in Europe, except only in the article of government, which they endeavoured farther to improve. It ought to be recorded, to their honour, that however rigid they may have been when they separated from the church of England, they seldom discovered that spirit of persecution which so degraded Massachusetts at a subsequent period.

In the fifth chapter, the author returns to the history of Virginia after the accession of Charles I. who, in colonial government, pursued the steps of his father. During ten years of this reign, the Virginians were ruled with great despotism. The governor and council appointed by the crown, were invested with the whole legislative power: they imposed taxes on the colonists at pleasure; and the king restrained their trade by his proclamations. But a legal constitution was afterwards restored.

The sixth chapter treats of the Massachusetts province, which was first settled by persons who obtained a grant of lands from the council of Plymouth. After reciting the most material parts of the charter granted to this colony, the author makes the following pertinent and judicious observations.

‘ Such

‘ Such then is the substance of a charter, which the enthusiasm of those days considered as sacred, because supposed to be derived from the providence of heaven; which has been often appealed to, as so comprehensive and important; and from which such considerable privileges have been at all times claimed and exercised. Yet, Massachusetts assuredly was not erected into a province of the English empire, to be regularly governed by the acts of a provincial legislature. Nothing more was prayed for, and nothing more was granted, than the establishment of a body politic, with special authority, “for disposing the lands of the plantation, and for the government of the people there.” The design of the grant was to confer the same immunities that had been given originally to the council of Plymouth; the intention of the grantees was to accept of the same powers that are usually granted to corporations within the realm.

‘ The clause, providing with a cautious spirit, that the ordinances of the company should not be repugnant to the laws of England, though uniformly inserted in all the colonial charters, was merely declaratory of the ancient jurisprudence of the state; and it was equally unnecessary as would be a similar provision in the constitution of any other corporation within the kingdom; being attended with little practical good, and giving rise to the various constructions of interest or of faction. Yet it contained a proposition of policy extremely simple and intelligible. The common law asserted, that no change of time or place shall make any alteration in the nature of the allegiance of the subject; that no inferior person or community shall do any act inconsistent with the nature of their inferiority; that no subordinate legislature shall prescribe any rule of action repugnant to the spirit of its subordination, or contradictory to the acts of the supreme legislative power; that appeals may be made from the courts of the dependent dominion to the judicatories of the sovereign state, because they are equally the right of the individual and the nation: and the inference drawn from these just premises, by the clause before-mentioned, was plainly this; that though power is now conferred to make regulation suitable and necessary for your distant colony, you shall make no ordinances inconsistent with the connexion between the territory and the country of which it is a member. The junction of England and Scotland, once separate and independent nations, is formed by statute-law; the coalition of Great Britain and her dependencies is established by common law: and both are equally binding and equally effectual for knitting together the various regions of which the British empire is composed. The union of England and Scotland alone demonstrates, that the laws of the two kingdoms may be extremely different, and even contradictory, yet the principles of their junction remain entire and unimpeached. So a colony may adopt new customs; may abrogate that part of the common law which is unsuitable to its new situation; may repeal the statute-law wherein it is inapplicable to its condition:

all it may change, except only the principles of its coalition with the state, or the special regulations of the supreme power or great body politic of the empire, with regard to it. Were subordinate legislatures of whatever denomination to make ordinances, altering the nature of the allegiance of the territorial inhabitants, making itself less inferior than formerly, restraining appeals, or abrogating the principles of the connexion with the nation; all such attempts must be consequently either construed as void or deemed assertions of independence. Such ordinances have, in fact, been passed. And an act of the sovereign legislature, in order to vindicate its own authority, declared soon after the Revolution, when the extent of its own powers were fully understood: that all by-laws and customs, which shall be in force in any of the plantations, repugnant to any law made or to be made in this kingdom, with regard to them, shall be utterly void. This famous statute therefore, is merely declaratory of the common-law principles before-mentioned.

We are informed, that when, after the Revolution, the charter of Massachusetts was laid before some of the best politicians and lawyers, viz. Somers, Holt, Treby, and Ward, they made the subsequent remarks on its defects; that being originally granted to a great company resident in England, it was wholly inapplicable to the circumstances of a distant colony, because it gave the body politic no more jurisdiction than every other corporation within the kingdom; that no authority was conferred to call special assemblies, in which the delegates of the people should appear, because representation was expressly excluded by the clause, requiring the presence of the freemen in the general courts; that no permission was given to raise money either on the colonists, or on strangers trading thither, because the king could not give an authority which he did not himself possess; that it did not enable the legislative body to erect various judicatories, either of admiralty, of probate of wills, or of chancery, because that required such a special grant as did not here exist.

The behaviour of this colony, both in civil and religious affairs, has been marked with peculiar excesses; in consequence of which a writ of quo warranto was issued against its charter. During the civil wars in England, this province acted almost entirely as an independent state. It not only formed leagues with the neighbouring colonies, but with foreign nations, without the consent or knowledge of the government of England. It permitted no appeals from its courts to the judicatories of the sovereign state; and it refused to exercise its jurisdiction in the name of the commonwealth of England. It assumed the government of that part of New England which is now called New Hampshire, and even extended its power farther eastward,

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over the province of Main. From the year 1650, to the Restoration, this turbulent province was chiefly employed in preserving, by persecution, uniformity in opinion and discipline; a business which, the historian remarks, seems always to have been the most congenial to its temper.

We shall defer the farther prosecution of this accurate history till our next Review.

Philosophical Transactions, of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXIX. Part I. For the Year 1779. 4to. 10s. 6d. L. Davis.

THIS volume commences with an Account of the Cure of the St. Vitus's Dance by Electricity, in a Letter from Dr. Anthony Fothergill, at Northampton.—The person on whom this cure was performed was a girl of ten years of age. She had for six weeks laboured under violent convulsive motions, from which, except during sleep, she had very short intermissions. The disease had not only impaired her intellectual faculties, but at length deprived her of the use of speech.

Volatile and fetid medicines were recommended, with the warm bath every other night; but these means were productive of no other benefit than that of rendering her more composed in the night. Blisters and antispasmodics were also directed, and particularly the flowers of zinc; which were continued about three weeks, without any abatement of the symptoms.

The following is the account transmitted to Dr. Fothergill by Mr. Underwood, who electrified this girl.

‘ July 5. On the glass-footed stool for thirty minutes: sparks were drawn from the arms, neck, and head, which caused a considerable perspiration, and a rash appeared in her forehead. She then received shocks through her hands, arms, breasts, and back; and from this time the symptoms abated, her arms beginning to recover their uses.

‘ July 13. On the glass-footed stool forty-five minutes: received strong shocks through her legs and feet, which from that time began to recover their wonted uses; also four strong shocks through the jaws, soon after which her speech returned.

‘ July 23. On the glass-footed stool for the space of one hour: sparks were drawn from her arms, legs, head, and breast, which for the first time she very sensibly felt; also two shocks through the spine. She could now walk alone; her countenance became more florid, and all her faculties seemed wonderfully strengthened, and from this time she continued mending to a state of perfect health.

‘ Every time she was electrified positively, her pulse quickened to a great degree, and an eruption, much like the itch, appeared in all her joints.’

Dr.

Dr. Fothergill has since visited this girl, and found her in good health. He informs us, that some time ago he cured a boy, who had long been afflicted with the St. Vitus's dance, though in a much less degree, by the same means. These instances afford strong proof of the virtue of electricity as an antispasmodic.

Art. II. A Case in which the Head of the Os Humeri was sawn off, and yet the Motion of the Limb preserved. By Mr. Daniel Orred, Surgeon, of Chester.

Art. III. Experiments on some Mineral Substances. By Peter Woulfe, F. R. S.—These experiments relate to the method of obtaining alum from crystal, quartz, and flint.

Art. IV. Account of a Petrefaction found on the Coast of East Lothian. By Edward King, Esq. F. R. S.—These petrefactions consisted of sand, concreted into a kind of stone, and were found upon the iron, ropes, and balls, belonging to the Fox man of war, which was stranded on the coast of East Lothian in 1745. The wreck remained about thirty-three years under water; but last year a violent storm from the north-east laid a part of it bare, and several masses were found near the place, covered with a hard ochry substance, of the colour of iron, which adhered so strongly to the fragments of the wreck, that great force was required to detach it from them. Mr. King then concludes, that there is, on the coasts of this island, a continual progressive induration of masses of sand and other matter at the bottom of the ocean, in the same manner as there is at the bottom of the Adriatic sea, according to the account given by Dr. Donati. It should seem, he also observes, that iron, and the solutions of iron, contribute very much to hasten the progress of petrefaction, whenever they are united with those cementing crystalline particles, which there is reason to believe are the immediate cause of the consolidation of all stones and marbles, and which abound in sea water.

Art. V. An Account of Dr. Knight's Method of making artificial Loadstones. By Mr. Benjamin Wilson, F. R. S.—For the gratification of our readers we shall insert this article.

“The method of making artificial loadstones, as it was discovered and practised by the late Dr. Gowin Knight, being unknown to the public; and I myself having been frequently present when the doctor was employed in the most material steps of that curious process, I thought a communication thereof would be agreeable to you and the philosophic world.

“The method was this: having provided himself with a large quantity of clean filings of iron, he put them into a large tub that was more than one third filled with clean water: he then, with great labour, worked the tub to and fro for many hours together,

gether, that the friction between the grains of iron by this treatment might break off such smaller parts as would remain suspended in the water for a time. The obtaining of those very small particles in sufficient quantity seemed to him to be one of the principal desiderata in the experiment.

‘ The water being by this treatment rendered very muddy, he poured the same into a clean earthen vessel, leaving the filings behind; and when the water had stood long enough to become clear, he poured it out carefully, without disturbing such of the iron sediment as still remained, which now appeared reduced almost to impalpable powder. This powder was afterwards removed into another vessel, in order to dry it; but as he had not obtained a proper quantity thereof, by this one step he was obliged to repeat the process many times.

‘ Having at last procured enough of this very fine powder, the next thing to be done was to make a paste of it, and that with some vehicle which would contain a considerable quantity of the phlogistic principle; for this purpose he had recourse to linseed oil in preference to all other fluids.

‘ With these two ingredients only he made a stiff paste, and took particular care to knead it well before he moulded it into convenient shapes. Sometimes, whilst the paste continued in its soft state, he would put the impression of a seal upon the several pieces; one of which is in the British Museum.

‘ This paste was then put upon wood, and sometimes on tiles, in order to bake or dry it before a moderate fire, at a foot distance or thereabouts.

‘ The doctor found, that a moderate fire was most proper, because a greater degree of heat made the composition frequently crack in many places.

‘ The time required for the baking or drying of this paste was generally five or six hours before it attained a sufficient degree of hardness. When that was done, and the several baked pieces were become cold, he gave them their magnetic virtue in any direction he pleased, by placing them between the extreme ends of his large magazine of artificial magnets for a few seconds or more, as he saw occasion.

‘ By this method the virtue they acquired was such, that when any one of those pieces was held between two of his best ten guinea bars, with its poles purposely inverted, it immediately of itself turned about to recover its natural direction, which the force of those very powerful bars was not sufficient to counteract.’

Art. VI. An Account of an extraordinary Dropsical Case. By Mr. John Latham.—This patient was a young lady, who died under the age of twenty-three. In the space of four years she was tapped a hundred and fifty-five times, and is supposed to have discharged in the whole three thousand seven hundred and twenty pints, or four hundred and sixty-five gallons, of water, a quantity not far short of seven hogsheads and a half.

Art.

Art. VII. Problems concerning Interpolations. By Edward Waring, M. D.—Mr. Henry Briggs was the first person who invented a method of differences for interpolating logarithms, which he published in his *Arithmetica Logarithmica*, 1624. Upon nearly the same principles the excellent improvements of Mouton, Reginald, Newton, Nicoli, Sterling, Cotes, &c. have rendered this subject an interesting branch of mathematical science. In this article, Dr. Waring thinks the same problem is made more general, without having any recourse to finding the successive differences. What is here performed, is, indeed, so general and abstract, as to be very intricate and obscure to ordinary readers, for whose benefit it might have been adviseable to be more explicit, and to have added some examples of the use of the theorems here delivered.

Art. VIII. *Disquisitio de Tempore periodico cometæ anno 1770 observati.* Auctore J. A. Lexell, Acad. Scient. Petrop. Socio. —It usually happens that during the short time in which comets are visible to the inhabitants of the earth, so very small a portion of their orbits is described, that the observation made on them by astronomers, are scarcely sufficient for determining with certainty their excentricities and periodic times. Very fortunately, however, the circumstances attending the comet which appeared for several months in the year 1770, were of so favourable a nature as to admit of some more definite computations; and hence this ingenious astronomer finds, that the periodic time of this comet ought to be only about $5\frac{1}{2}$ years; which term agrees much better with the observations that have been made upon it than any other. This result, however, drawn from the observations on the true elliptic hypothesis, is on the supposition that the comet is not sensibly affected in its motion by the attraction of any of the planets; a supposition quite inadmissible, as this gentleman finds, that at the aphelion next preceding the year 1770, the comet's distance from Jupiter was only the 58th part of its distance from the sun, and that therefore the action of Jupiter on the comet was three times greater than the action of the sun upon it; and also that at the next following aphelion, its distance from Jupiter would be but the 491st part of the solar distance, and consequently, the action of the former 224 times greater than that of the latter. Hence he finds the motion of the comet will be so greatly disturbed by the action of Jupiter, that its future appearances and periodic time may be expected to be greatly altered.

IX. On the general Resolution of Algebraical Equations. By Edward Waring, M. D.—The general resolution and transformation of algebraical equations, have been carried by this
learned

learned gentleman farther, perhaps, than by any other person. Some of his improvements were published in 1759, and afterwards farther extended in his *Miscellanea Analytica*, and *Meditationes Algebraicæ*, &c. The present article is a farther consideration of the same nature, and consists in assuming the value of the root of a general equation in indefinite terms, and thence deducing the form of the equation itself, the general coefficients of which deduced equation being compared with the coefficients of any proposed equation of the same order, the roots of this last equation become known from the root first assumed. Its utility, however, might have been more general, had the author treated the subject more explicitly, and illustrated the theorems with numerical examples.

XI. Observations on the total (with Duration) and annular Eclipse of the Sun, taken on the 24th of June, 1778, on Board the *Espagne*, being the Admiral's Ship of the Fleet of New Spain, in the Passage from the Azores towards Cape St. Vincent's. By Don Antonio Ulloa, F. R. S. Commander of the said Squadron; communicated by Samuel Horsley, LL.D. F. R. S.—The situation of don Ulloa, between the Azores and the south-west point of Portugal, at the time of this eclipse of the sun, rendered it total, the total obscuration lasting about four minutes; and, during this obscurity he observed two very rare and most curious phenomena, namely, a broad luminous ring about the disc of the moon, and a small part of the sun seen through an opening in the moon's limb before the end of the total obscuration; the former of these phenomena being very seldom seen by astronomers, and the latter we do not remember to have been ever observed or noticed before. The former of these appearances, namely, the luminous ring around the edge of the moon, was no part of the sun's disc, as seen by direct vision; because at the time of the eclipse, the moon's apparent diameter was greater than that of the sun; and therefore the moon's disc more than totally covered the sun's, and this total obscuration, as remarked above, lasted four minutes: but as these appearances are highly curious and interesting, we shall deliver them in the author's own words.

‘ Five or six seconds after the immersion we began to observe round the moon a very brilliant circle of light, which seemed to have a rapid circular motion something similar to that of a rocket turning about its center. This light became livelier and more dazzling in proportion as the center of the moon approached to that of the sun, and about the middle of the eclipse it was of the breadth of about a sixth of the moon's diameter. Out of this luminous circle there issued forth rays of light, which reached

reached to the distance of a diameter of the moon, sometimes more, sometimes less, which made me think that they were parts of a weaker light which were reflected in an atmosphere more subtle than that in which the ring was formed. When the centers of the two planets began to separate, the diminution began, and took place gradually in the same order which had been observed at its beginning and during the progress of it. It disappeared entirely four or five seconds before the emerfion. The colour of the light was not the same every where; the part immediately joining the disk of the moon was of a reddish cast, from thence it changed towards a pale yellow, which about the middle began to clear till, at the external extremity, it ended in an almost entire white. It was equally brilliant throughout, and the whirling motion, common to all the parts of it, seemed to change the form and position of the rays which appeared to the eye sometimes larger, sometimes shorter, at the same time that there was no change either in the colours of the ring themselves, or in the arrangement of them, both which continues as I have described them.

• For four or five seconds before the appearance of the shining ring, and during as many after it had disappeared, one could see the stars of the first and second magnitude as at the entrance of the night; but when it was in its greatest degree of brilliancy, only those of the first magnitude could be discovered. The darkness was such, that persons who were asleep, and happened to wake, thought that they had slept the whole evening, and only waked when the night was pretty far advanced. The fowls, birds, and other animals on board took their usual position for sleeping as if it had been night.

• Before the edge of the sun's disk emerged from that of the moon, there was discovered near that of the latter a very small point of that of the sun; it was imperceptible to the naked eye, but having looked at it with the glass I estimated it at first to be about the magnitude of a star of the fourth order; after which it seemed to increase to that of one of the third. Its first appearance, to wit, that before the edge of the sun emerged from that of the moon, lasted about a minute and a quarter, the luminous circle was still visible though already much weaker than it had been.

• The reddish colour of the ring towards the lunar disk, its deep yellow towards the middle, its clear and very pale yellow at the external extremity, its uniform circumference, and the rays issuing from it to the distance taken notice of above, convince me that the whole is the effect of the lunar atmosphere, which is of a substance different from that of the earth, that is, more transparent, more homogeneous, more uniform, and fitter for reflecting the rays of light, since otherwise the ring would not have been equally clear, shining, and coloured throughout the whole circumference of the lunar disk. It cannot be said, that this luminous ring is the effect of the rays of the sun reflected by

by the atmosphere of the earth, because the apparent diameter of the sun is smaller than that of the moon, whose disk entirely hid that of the sun. Besides, if the luminous circle had been made by the atmosphere of the earth, its colours would have been like those of the rainbow, and it would have appeared fixed without motion, instead of which, that which was seen is the same as that which is seen by the naked eye upon the sun when it is just above the horizon a little after sun-rise or before sun-set, so that one may conclude, that this luminous circle is a part of the disk of the sun seen after refraction through the atmosphere of the moon.

The point of the sun's disk, which was seen before its limb began to emerge from that of the moon, is a very extraordinary phenomenon which I was not acquainted with before. In order to obviate all doubts which might arise about it, I must mention that we were three observers, don Joachin d'Aranda, lieutenant Wintuysen, and I. Mr. d'Aranda, who was looking at the eclipse through a two-foot telescope about the end of the total obscurity, was the first who perceived it. He, not knowing what it was, told me, that the total obscurity drew near an end, because he discovered a small point of the sun, like a star, on the edge of the moon. I looked immediately with the naked eye, and saw nothing. I then took out a spy glass, with which I saw as much. At length I took out my telescope of two feet and a half, and did discover with that a red luminous point so near the edge of the moon, that it left me no doubts of its belonging to the body of the sun. I, at that time, estimated it to be about the size of a star of the third magnitude; and imagine, that when Mr. d'Aranda discovered it, it must have been like one of the fourth. This point gradually increased, and when it became of the bigness of a star of the second magnitude, the edge of the sun emerged from that of the moon. The interval between the first discovery of this point and the beginning of the emerfion was about a minute and a quarter. This apparition of the sun, before the beginning of the emerfion, can only have taken place through some crevice or inequality on the limb of the moon, not perceivable at the full moon, by reason of the reflected rays which cross each other, and confuse it; whereas at the time of the eclipse, the moon's body being entirely obscured, the light of the sun is behind, and comes through the smallest openings in the disk without any confusion.

The time elapsed between the first appearance of the sun's body through the aperture of the limb of the moon and the appearance of the limb of the sun out of that of the moon will serve to determine the depth of the said chink, aperture, or inequality, which is equal to the height of the eminencies which form it.

The author observed also some spots on the sun near the time of the eclipse; and he remarks, that the very extraordi-

nary appearances of the luminous spot and ring, surprised him to such a degree, that he neglected to make many other observations concerning this eclipse, which might have been very useful for the improvement of astronomy.

Art. XII. *Tentamen continens Theoriam Machinæ sublicarum.* Auctore Tho. Bugge, Astronomo Regio, Astron. and Mathem. Prof. in Acad. Havniensi.—The theory of pile-driving has been but little treated of by writers; and that little on wrong principles. This article, therefore, is an attempt to place the subject in a more just light. After mentioning the importance of it, the author enumerates the principal writers, as Leopold, Desaguliers, and Belidor, pointing out their errors, especially the gross ones, committed by the last of these gentlemen. He then lays down his own theory, deduces the necessary rules of computation into algebraic formulæ, and concludes with a description of the mode of computing the time requisite to drive a given number of piles with a given force, &c.

This attempt is laudable, and the author has corrected some of the errors which he found in the theory given by former writers; though he has himself fallen into some new errors: his general estimation of the quantity of friction, which the pile meets with in the ground, appears to us to want correction; and in p. 127, he brings out an absurd conclusion, or a negative quantity instead of a positive one, by assuming the value of another quantity in the formula, much below the real magnitude of its minimum value.

Art. XIII. Account of an iconantidiptic Telescope, invented by Mr. Jeaurat, of the Academy of Sciences at Paris.

Mr. Jeaurat, of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Paris, having discovered a construction of the iconantidiptic telescope, thought proper to communicate to the Royal Society of London a short description of this new invention.

This telescope is called the iconantidiptic heliometer, because it produces two images of the objects, the one in a direct position, and the other reversed. These two images, of opposite situation to each other, are exactly of the same size, and produce the effect of shewing the stars as entering at once both on the right and left sides of the telescope. The first coincidence of the two images on the side of each other gives the passage of the first limb; the exact coincidence of the two images upon one another gives the passage of the center of the star; and the last coincidence of the two images at the side of each other gives the passage of the second edge: from whence it follows, that we not only observe as usual the passage of the two sides of the disk of a star, but also the direct passage of the center of the star: an observation which could not before be made in a direct manner. Besides, it may be observed, that this invention

vention obviates the difficulty of illuminating the threads of the telescope in observing very small stars, for in this construction there is no occasion to see the threads.

Mr. Jeurat gives the construction of this seemingly curious telescope, by means of general algebraical formulæ, and computes a pretty large table of the dimensions of all the requisite parts of this instrument with respect to each other; from which it may easily be made by an intelligent workman.

Art. XIV. Account of the Organs of Speech of the Orang Outang. By Peter Camper, M. D. late Professor of Anatomy, &c. in the University of Groningen, and F. R. S.—It has been affirmed by many travellers, that though the Orang does not speak, he is endued with the capacity of articulating, if he chose to exert it. But Mr. Camper, from the dissection of this animal, and other species of the monkey, clearly demonstrates the impossibility of their speaking.

Art. XV. Account of the Effects of Lightning on board the Atlas. By Allen Cooper, Esq. Master of the Atlas East-India-man.

Art. XVI. Extracts of three Letters from John Longfield, M. D. at Corke, to the Astronomer Royal, containing some astronomical Observations.—These observations are mostly on the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, and on the going of the clock for ascertaining the times. The chief consequence drawn from them, is the situation of the city of Corke, the latitude of which is found to be $51^{\circ} 53' 54''$ north, and its longitude $8^{\circ} 29' 15''$ west of Greenwich.

Art. XVII. The Latitude of Madras deduced from Observations, made by William Stephens, chief Engineer.—From the mean of all these observations, it appears that the latitude of Madras is $13^{\circ} 4' 54''$ north.

Art. XVIII. Account of an Infant Musician. By Charles Burney, Doctor of Music, and F. R. S.—Such of our readers as are unacquainted with the history of this prodigy, will be amazed at the following extract from Dr. Burney's interesting narrative:

‘ William Crotch was born at Norwich July 5, 1775. His father, by trade a carpenter, having a passion for music, of which however he had no knowledge, undertook to build an organ, on which, as soon as it would speak, he learned to play two or three common tunes, such as God save great George our King; Let Ambition fire thy Mind; and The Easter Hymn; with which, and such chords as were pleasing to his ear, he used to try the perfection of his instrument.

‘ I have been favoured with several particulars concerning his son's first attention to music from Robert Partridge, esq. a gentleman

tleman of rank in the corporation of Norwich, who, at my request, has been so obliging as to ascertain many curious facts, the truth of which, had they rested merely on the authority of the child's father or mother, might have been suspected; and transactions out of the common course of nature cannot be too scrupulously or minutely proved.

My correspondent, of whose intelligence and veracity I have the highest opinion, tells me, that I may rest assured of the authenticity of such circumstances as he relates from the information of the child's father, who is an ingenious mechanic, of good reputation, whom he knows very well, and frequently employs, as these circumstances are confirmed by the testimony of many who were witnesses of the child's early performance; and he adds, that he has himself seen and heard most of the very extraordinary efforts of his genius.

About Christmas 1776, when the child was only a year and a half old, he discovered a great inclination for music, by leaving even his food to attend to it when the organ was playing: and about Midsummer 1777 he would touch the key-note of his particular favourite tunes, in order to persuade his father to play them. Soon after this, as he was unable to name these tunes, he would play the two or three first notes of them when he thought the key-note did not sufficiently explain which he wished to have played.

But, according to his mother, it seems to have been in consequence of his having heard the superior performance of Mrs. Lulman, a musical lady, who came to try his father's organ, and who not only played on it, but sung to her own accompaniment, that he first attempted to play a tune himself: for, the same evening, after her departure, the child cried, and was so peevish, that his mother was wholly unable to appease him. At length, passing through the dining-room, he screamed and struggled violently to go to the organ, in which, when he was indulged, he eagerly beat down the keys with his little fists, as other children usually do after finding themselves able to produce a noise, which pleases them more than the artificial performance of real melody or harmony by others.

The next day, however, being left, while his mother went out, in the dining-room with his brother, a youth of about fourteen years old, he would not let him rest till he blew the bellows of the organ, while he sat on his knee and beat down the keys, at first promiscuously; but presently, with one hand, he played enough of God save great George our King to awaken the curiosity of his father, who being in a garret, which was his workshop, hastened down stairs to inform himself who was playing this tune on the organ. When he found it was the child, he could hardly believe what he heard and saw. At this time he was exactly two years and three weeks old, as appears by a copy I have obtained of the register in the parish of St. George's Colgate, Norwich, signed by the Rev. Mr. Tapps, minister.

Nor

Nor can the age of this child be supposed to exceed this account by those who have seen him, as he has not only all the appearance, but the manners, of an infant, and can no more be prevailed on to play by persuasion than a bird to sing.

It is easy to account for God save great George our King being the first tune he attempted to play, as it was not only that which his father often performed, but had been most frequently administered to him as a narcotic by his mother, during the first year of his life. It had likewise been more magnificently played than he was accustomed to hear by Mrs. Lulman, the afternoon before he became a practical musician himself; and, previous to this event, he used to teize his father to play this tune on his organ, and was very clamorous when he did not carry his point.

Art. XIX. Account of a new Method of cultivating the Sugar Cane. By Mr. Cazaud.

Art. XX. Account of the Free Martin. By John Hunter, Esq. F. R. S.—Besides a particular account of the Free Martin, we meet in this paper with many curious observations on hermaphrodites.

This publication concludes, as usual, with a Meteorological Journal kept at the House of the Royal Society.

A Specimen of the Civil and Military Institutes of Timour, or Tamerlane: a Work written originally by that celebrated Conqueror in the Mogul Language, and since translated into Persian. Now first rendered from the Persian into English, from a Manuscript in the Possession of William Hunter, M. D. F. R. S. Physician Extraordinary to the Queen. With other Pieces. By Joseph White, B. D. Fellow of Wadham College, Laudian Professor of Arabic, one of his Majesty's Preachers at Whitehall, and Editor and Translator of the Syriac Philoxenian Version of the Gospels. 4to. 1s 6d. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press, 1780. Sold by P. Elmsly, in London.

IT has been the frequent practice of authors, to exhibit specimens of intended works to the public. Of these specimens it is the general design, to sound the judgments and the inclinations of the literary world, and arrive at some probable conjecture concerning the success of the entire performance. We own, we are no friends to this mode of publication. It is partial: industry and talents have often been employed in the specimen, which have been looked for in vain in the sequel. Nor is it the sure means of collecting the public suffrages: it is now no longer the fashion among the learned to address the experimental author in letters of criticism and congratulation.

The only application we shall make of what has been said, to the performance before us, is, that no hesitation was necessary to determine the propriety of its appearing in a complete form.

But, whatever motives may have inclined the learned professor to this anticipation of the public curiosity, we shall proceed to give such a report of the performance, as the dignity of the subject, and the great name of Tamerlane requires.

The Civil and Military Institutes of this great conqueror, we are told, were written by himself in the Mogul language. They are addressed to his royal descendants, for whose use they were composed. He also wrote his own History, which is extant in the Asiatic libraries, but has not reached Europe. Both these works of the emperor of the East were collected by him from public historical journals, which he caused to be kept, by persons properly qualified, of all the transactions of his reign. They are interspersed with reflections, anecdotes, and political motives of conduct, which could only be known to himself. This circumstance renders it evident, that he must have forfeited his character of a great and wise man, if, during his life-time, he had divulged those secrets of state on which depended the success of his measures and the prosperity of his empire.

These conjectural facts we collect from a letter prefixed to the Specimen, written by Mr. Davy of Gloucester, in answer to some enquiries made by Mr. White.

‘ Abu Taulib ul Husseini (says Mr. Davy) in the dedication of his Translation (of the Institutes) to Sultaun ul Audil, says, that in the library of Jafir, Haukim of Yemmun, he met with a manuscript in the Turki or Mogul language, which, on inspection, proved to be the History of Timour, written by himself; containing an account of his life and actions from the seventh to the seventy-fourth year of his age, &c. &c. He then proceeds to give the Translation of the said History, in which are included the Institutes.’

‘ I was acquainted (Mr. Davy in another place informs us) with several great and learned men in India, both natives and Persians: on perusing the works of Timour, I was led to make the same enquiry which you have made, whether they were, or were not, authentic? The answers I received were always in the affirmative, and attended with some tokens and expressions of surprize, that I should, or could, doubt their being genuine. Shaah Aulum, the present Mogul, has a beautiful copy of the History and Institutes of Timour; which he holds in such esteem, and of which he is so exceedingly careful, that though he granted me the use of any other book in his possession, this he positively excepted by name, as a work so rare and valuable, that he could not trust it to the care of any person whatever.’

But let Tamerlane speak for himself.

‘ Be it known to you, my fortunate sons, the conquerors of kingdoms; to you, my mighty descendants, the lords of the earth,

earth, that, trusting in Almighty God that many of my children, descendants, and posterity, shall sit upon the throne of regal authority; upon this account, having established laws and regulations for the well-governing of my dominions, I have collected together those regulations and laws as a model for others: to the end, that every one of my children, descendants, and posterity, acting agreeably thereto, my power and empire, which I acquired through dangers, difficulties, and bloodshed, by the Divine favour, by the influence of the holy religion of Mahumud * (God's peace be upon him), and with the assistance of the powerful descendants and illustrious followers of that prophet, may be by them preserved.'

' Among the various rules which I established for the support of my glory and empire, the first was this—that I promoted the worship of Almighty God, and propagated the religion of the sacred Mahumud throughout the world; and at all times, and in all places, supported the true faith.

' With the assistance of twelve classes of men I conquered and governed kingdoms; with them I strengthened the pillars of my fortune, and from them I selected my counsellors †.'

He soon after proceeds in the following words:

'—By discipline and order I so firmly established my authority, that the emirs, the vizirs, the soldiers, and the subjects, could not aspire beyond their respective stations; but on the contrary, every one was content and satisfied with the rank allotted him.

' With donations of money and of jewels I rejoiced the hearts of my officers and soldiers; I permitted them to participate in the banquet; and in the field of blood they hazarded their lives in support of my power. I withheld not from them my gold nor my silver. I educated and trained them to arms; and to alleviate their sufferings, I myself shared in all their labours and in all their hardships: until, with the arm of fortitude and resolution, and with the unanimity of my chiefs, my generals, and my warriors, by the edge of the sword I obtained possession of the thrones of seven-and-twenty kings, and became the firm and established lord of,' &c.

Here follow the oriental names of one and twenty kingdoms, which, as they are not accompanied with European translations, would convey no particular ideas of information to the English reader.

' From the moment that I cloathed myself in the robe of empire, I shut my eyes to the soft repose which is found on the bed of ease, and to that health which follows tranquility. From the

' * In writing the name of the Arabian lawgiver (as well as all other names of persons and places introduced in this publication) I have adopted the orthography of Mr. Davy, whose accuracy of pronunciation was well known in the East.'

' † The twelve classes of men here alluded to, are fully described in a subsequent part of the Institutes.'

twelfth year of my age I suffered distresses, combated difficulties, formed enterprizes, and vanquished armies; experienced mutinies amongst my officers and my soldiers, was familiarised to the language of disobedience (which I opposed with policy and with fortitude), and hazarded my person in the hour of danger; until in the end I vanquished kingdoms and empires, and established the glory of my name.'

'—Those who had done me injuries, who had attacked my person in battle, and had counteracted my schemes and enterprises, when they threw themselves on my mercy, I received them with kindness; conferred on them additional honours; drew the pen of oblivion over their evil actions; and treated them with such a degree of confidence, that if the least vestige of apprehension remained in their hearts, it was entirely eradicated.'

Nothing is more common than desertion in the armies of Europe. Let us hear the sentiments of the Eastern conqueror on the subject.

'Soldiers, whether associates or adversaries, I held in esteem; those who sell their permanent happiness for perishable honour, who rush into the field of battle and of slaughter, and hazard their lives in the hour of danger. The man, who preserving his fidelity to his master untainted, drew his sword on the side of my enemy, and committed hostilities against me, him I highly honoured; and when such a man offered me his services, knowing his worth, I classed him with the most faithful of my associates, and respected and valued his fidelity and attachment. That soldier who forgot his duty and his honour, and in the hour of action deserting, joined the standard of his adversary, I considered as the most detestable of men. In the war with Touktumish Khaun, his superior officers, forgetful of their duty to him who was their legal master and my confirmed foe, sent proposals and made applications unto me. I held their treachery in abhorrence; because, unmindful of that which they owed to the hand that fed them, they had thrown aside their honour and their duty, and offered their services to the enemy of their prince. Thus I reflected with myself, what fidelity have they observed to their liege lord? what fidelity will they shew unto me?'

This last seems an obvious reflection: yet, what modern commander acts upon the noble principle? These sentiments convey a very severe reprehension of a practice which disgraces some of the most polished nations of our Western world.

We shall, with the following quotation, conclude our account of this incomparable work of Tamerlane.

'I ever acted on deliberation: and whatever enterprize I undertook, that enterprize engaged my whole attention; nor did I ever relinquish it, till I had brought it to a conclusion. I adhered to my promises. I never dealt with severity towards any one, nor was I oppressive in any of my actions; that God Almighty

mighty might not deal severely towards me, nor render my own actions oppressive unto me. I enquired of learned men into the laws and regulations of ancient princes, from the days of Adam to those of the Prophet, and from that time to the present period. I weighed their institutions, their manners, their actions, and their opinions, one by one: I selected models for my own conduct from their excellent qualities and approved virtues. I enquired into the causes of the subversion of their power, and avoided those actions which tended to the destruction and overthrow of regal authority. Cruelty and oppression, which are the destroyers of posterity, and the parents of famine and of plagues, I cautiously shunned.

‘The situation of my subjects was known unto me. Those of them who were of a superior rank, I considered as my brethren; and as my children, those of the inferior class.’

What a noble sentiment!—If Tamerlane acted as he wrote (and writers of repute have authorised the belief), we cannot help considering him as the first and greatest prince who is recorded in the page of history. The manners of the nations, and the events of the age, in which he lived, were not favourable to the display of the benevolence of his heart, and the enlargement of his mind. Yet it affords matter of surprize, that in the present times, and in this country, where the notions of liberty have been stretched to the utmost wish of refined patriotism, we should find no instance where his principles are not just, and his conduct is not noble. In the contemplation of the Eastern conqueror we are seldom reminded of the king of Prussia: but we think we can discover several traits in the milder part of his character, which all Europe admires in the emperor of Germany.

We are sorry we have not room for an extract from the Specimen Mr. White has added of a beautiful and animated performance, called ‘the Loves of Eusoof and Zoolleikha,’ written by the Persian poet Jaumi. It begins, according to the custom of the oriental writers, with the praises of Allah, or the Divine Being,

‘Whose praise is the ornament of eloquent tongues.’

We hope the whole will be translated and published; and that we shall have an opportunity of bestowing on it the notice it deserves.

The attention we have with-held from the poetical part of the publication, we shall transfer to a subject which we conceive to be of high importance, and which we shall present to our readers in the words of Mr. White.

‘The

• The foregoing Specimens I intended to have introduced by an Essay of some extent on the great importance and utility of the Persian Language, and by a proposal for establishing a Persian Professorship in the University of Oxford. But having since met with a pamphlet of much merit, written some years ago by governor Hastings, directed to the same object, I have thought it unnecessary to prosecute my design.

• During the time that I was engaged in writing the intended Essay and Proposal, I received from Mr. Davy, in answer to my repeated enquiries, the following letter: which places the importance of the Persian language for transacting the Company's affairs in India in so clear and just a light, is founded throughout on such striking facts, and supported and illustrated with so many judicious observations and remarks, that I conceived it to be highly worthy the attention of the East India Company, and of the gentlemen in their service. Impressed with this idea, notwithstanding I afterwards relinquished my original design, I determined, if possible, to lay the Letter before the public: but as it was communicated for my private use only, Mr. Davy's approbation was necessary for the purpose; which, at my particular solicitation, he has been pleased to grant.

The praises which the author bestows will not appear to be exaggerated when the subject of them is viewed by the eye of impartial criticism. Mr. Davy certainly possesses an intimate and extensive knowledge of the state and interests of our settlements in the East. Animadverting on the dangerous consequences of making the natives of India our interpreters, he says,

• That natives of a superior rank are not altogether proof against the influence of gold, I have met with several instances. A very strong evidence of the above assertion I have now in my possession; namely, exact copies of all the letters wrote by the reigning Mogul, Shaah Aulum, in the years 71, 72, 73, to the several independent princes of the empire. These copies were regularly transmitted by one of the king's confidential secretaries, and often came into my possession, before the persons to whom they were sent could receive the originals. By this means the counsels, negociations, and intrigues of the court of Delhi, and of others, the native powers and princes of Hindostan, were entirely laid open to our inspection. This happened during the period that I had the honour to fill the post of Persian secretary to Sir Robert Barker, the then commander in chief of the forces of Bengal. The above, I think, is a strong and pointed proof: and it follows that European gentlemen only can, in prudence and in policy, be entrusted with this important business; and that a partial knowledge of the Persian language is by no means sufficient to qualify even them to be trusted. To be able simply to converse in the Persian is a very inadequate degree of know-

knowledge. A Persian interpreter should not only be able to speak fluently in the language, but to read all such letters as he may receive; not only to read all such letters, but to answer them with his own hand, if the importance of the subject, of which they treat, should render it necessary.'

After mentioning, among various other circumstances, the advantage of the Persian Grammar, and the Persian and Arabic Dictionary, which have lately appeared, he adds,

'Both Mr. Vansittart and Mr. Hastings had in contemplation the establishment of an academy in England, in order to promote the study of the Persian language; and to enable such young men as were intended for the India service, to acquire the rudiments of that useful knowledge at home. The return of those gentlemen to India rendered their intentions abortive: but those intentions, nevertheless, tend to prove the high idea they entertained of its importance and utility.'

The result of the facts and reasoning contained in the Letter before us, is the propriety of establishing a Persian secretary to the East India Company, resident in or near the capital.

'It is well known (continues Mr. D.) that the court of directors annually receive from their settlements in India, letters, memorials, treaties, and other important papers, in the Persian language, transmitted to them as vouchers by their officers abroad. It is true, that translations of such papers are usually sent with the originals. But it must be well known to gentlemen conversant in India affairs, that from many circumstances, accurate translations of such letters, memorials, and treaties, by a gentleman unbiassed by party, faction, or interest, and under their own immediate protection, must be highly acceptable and advantageous to the India government at home. Such a person would also be able to translate into the Persian language all such treaties and letters, as they might have occasion to send or write to the native powers of Hindostan; which might be transmitted to India under their proper seal, and consequently not be liable to an erroneous translation abroad.'

We concur in a belief of the utility of the proposed institution, which we think very practicable, if persons can be found (and we have no reasons to think there cannot) who are pointed out as proper to be employed, by qualifications like those Mr. Davy appears to possess. This gentleman's letter, in support of his plan, is sensible and ingenious. We do not conceive it was necessary to have said so much; yet we cannot wish he had said less.

A New

A New Geographical, Historical, and Commercial Grammar; and Present State of the several Kingdoms of the World. By William Guthrie, Esq. The Astronomical Part by James Ferguson, F.R.S. A New Edition, with great Additions and Improvements. Illustrated with a Set of large Maps. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Robinson.

THIS work was first noticed in our Review for the month of November 1770; since which time it has undergone a great number of editions in octavo, its original size. But the high esteem in which it is universally held, has at length induced the proprietors to publish an edition of it in a handsome quarto volume, as more becoming the rank to which it is entitled in every gentleman's library. To the account we formerly gave of the merits of this excellent Grammar, the public opinion has concurred so much in its testimony, that it would be superfluous to say any thing farther on the subject. We shall therefore only observe, that the present edition has received considerable improvements in all its parts, particularly the historical. We are not only presented with an account of the late revolutions in Russia, Denmark, Sweden, and Poland, but of the rise and progress of the contest between Great Britain, and the American colonies. To these is added a concise narrative of the late voyages which have been performed at the expence of the government, for the purposes of discovery, especially in the southern hemisphere.

As a specimen of the historical additions, we shall lay before our readers the account of the late revolution in Sweden.

But scarcely had the king taken these solemn oaths to rule according to the then established form of government, and accepted the crown upon these conditions, before he formed the plan to govern as he thought proper, regarding these oaths only as matters of ceremony. And he made use of every art, the most profound dissimulation, and the utmost dexterity and address, in order to render this hazardous enterprise successful. At his first arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which could increase his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who presented themselves. Neither rank, fortune, nor interest, were necessary to obtain access to him: it was sufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cause of complaint to lay before him. He listened to the meanest of his subjects with affability, and entered into the minutest details that concerned them; he informed himself of their private affairs, and seemed to interest himself in their happiness. This conduct made him considered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolize him. In the warmth of their gratitude they forgot, that motives of ambition might have some share in form-

forming a conduct which to them appeared to proceed from principles of the purest benevolence. At the same time that he laboured to render himself generally popular, he also endeavoured to persuade the leading men of the kingdom, that he was sincerely and inviolably attached to the constitution of his country; that he was perfectly satisfied with the share of power the constitution had allotted to him, and he took every opportunity to declare, that he considered it as his greatest glory to be the first citizen of a free people. He seemed intent only on banishing corruption, and promoting union; he declared he would be of no party but that of the nation; and that he would ever pay the most implicit obedience to whatever the diet should enact. These professions lulled the many into a fatal security, though they created suspicions among a few of greater penetration, who thought his majesty promised too much to be in earnest. In the mean time, there happened some contentions between the different orders of the Swedish states; and no methods were left untried to foment these jealousies. Emissaries were likewise planted in every part of the kingdom, for the purpose of sowing discontent among the inhabitants, of rendering them disaffected to the established government, and of exciting them to an insurrection. At length, when the king found his scheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper measures for bringing a considerable number of the officers and soldiers into his interest, on the 19th of August, 1772, he totally overturned the Swedish constitution of government. In less than an hour he made himself master of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the door of the council-chamber, in which the senate were assembled, and made all the members of it prisoners. And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden, of the transaction in which the king was engaged, till the scheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arsenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. Soldiers stood over these with matches ready lighted; all communication with the country was cut off, no one without a passport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The senators were then confined in separate apartments in the palace, and many others who were supposed to be zealously attached to the liberties of Sweden, were put under arrest. The remainder of the day the king employed in visiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magistrates, the colleges, and the city militia. Oaths were also tendered the next day, to the people in general, to whom he addressed a speech, which he concluded by declaring, that his only intention was to restore tranquillity to his native country, by suppressing licentiousness, overturning the aristocratic form of government, reviving the old Swedish liberty, and restoring the ancient laws of Sweden, such as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," said he, "as I have already done, all idea of the abhorred

horred absolute power, or what is called *sovereignty*, esteeming it now, as before, my greatest glory to be the first citizen among a truly free people." Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town, to proclaim an assembly of the states for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the diet should absent himself, he should be considered and treated as a traitor to his country.

On the morning of the 21st of August, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take possession of the square, where the house of nobles stands. The palace was invested on all sides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court, facing the hall where the states were to be assembled. These were not only charged, but soldiers stood over them with matches ready lighted in their hands. The several orders of the states were here compelled to assemble by the king's order, and these military preparations were made in order to assist their deliberations. The king being seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addressed a speech to the states, he ordered a secretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the states for their acceptance. As they were surrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marshal of the diet, and the speakers of the other orders, signed the form of government; and the states took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himself. This extraordinary transaction was concluded in a manner equally extraordinary. The king drew a book of Psalms from his pocket, and taking off his crown, began to sing *Te Deum*, in which he was joined by the assembly. He afterwards gave them to understand, that he intended in six years time again to convene an assembly of the states. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodshed, in which the Swedes surrendered that constitution, which their forefathers had bequeathed to them after the death of Charles the Twelfth, as a bulwark against any despotic attempts of their future monarchs.

The Swedes, at some periods, have discovered an ardent love of liberty; at others, they have seemed fitted only for slavery; and when they were labouring to render themselves free, they have wanted that sound political knowledge, which would have pointed out to them the proper methods for securing their future freedom. The most capital defect of the Swedish constitution was the total want of all balance of its parts: and the division of the Swedish nation into three distinct classes of nobles, burghers, and peasants, whose interests were perpetually clashing, has been a circumstance very unfavourable to the liberty of the Swedes. The power of their kings was much restrained; but no sufficient regulations were adopted for securing the personal freedom of the subject. These defects in the Swedish constitution paved the way for the late revolution: but it is notwithstanding a just subject of surprise, that a bold and hardy people, who had so
cauti-

cautiously limited the power of their prince, should at once, without a struggle, suffer him to proceed to so great an extension of his authority. It appears, however, that the exorbitant power which Gustavus the Third hath thus assumed, he has hitherto, since the revolution, exercised with some degree of moderation.

Besides great and numerous improvements, this valuable edition is furnished with a set of maps, executed upon a scale that corresponds to the enlarged dimensions of the volume; and considered in every respect, the work, in its present form, is rendered more worthy of the great reputation it has acquired, than any former edition.

The Commercial Restraints of Ireland considered. In a Series of Letters to a noble Lord. Containing an Historical Account of the Affairs of that Kingdom, so far as they relate to this Subject. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Longman.

THESE letters appear to have been written with the view of elucidating the state of Ireland, and of tracing the causes of its distress. Since the passing of the late act of parliament respecting that kingdom, those objects of enquiry may, perhaps, be considered as of little importance: but to examine the various operations of restrictive laws on the interests of a community, must always be a useful disquisition in political science; and in the present case, it must likewise afford pleasure to every friend of his country, to find that the legislature has not only acted with becoming magnanimity, but, at the same time, upon the clearest principles of national advantage.

The first of these Letters is dated from Dublin, the 20th of August last, and contains a melancholy account of the state of Ireland.

‘The present state of Ireland, says the author, teems with every circumstance of national poverty. Whatever the land produces is greatly reduced in its value: wool is fallen one half in its usual price; wheat one third; black cattle of all kinds in the same proportion, and hides in a much greater: buyers are not had without difficulty at those low rates, and from the principal fairs men commonly return with the commodities they brought there: rents are every where reduced, in many places it is impossible to collect them: the farmers are all distressed, and many of them are failed: when leases expire, tenants are not easily found: the landlord is often obliged to take his lands into his own hands, for want of bidders at reasonable rents, and finds his estate fallen one fourth in its value. The merchant justly complains that all business is at a stand, that he cannot discount his bills, and that neither money nor paper circulates. In this and the last year, above twenty thousand manufacturers,

in this metropolis were reduced to beggary for want of employment; they were for a considerable length of time supported by alms; a part of the contribution came from England, and this assistance was much wanting, from the general distress of all ranks of people in this country. Public and private credit are annihilated: parliament, that always raises money in Ireland on easy terms, when there is any to be borrowed in the country, in 1778 gave $7\frac{1}{2}$ l. per cent. in annuities, which in 1773 and 1775 were earnestly sought after at 6 l. then thought to be a very high rate. The expences of a country, nearly bankrupt, must be inconsiderable; almost every branch of the revenue has fallen; and the receipts in the treasury for the two years, ending Lady-day, 1779, were less than those for the two years, ending Lady-day, 1777, deducting the sums received on account of loans in each period, in a sum of 334,900 l. 18s. 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. there was due on the 25th of March last, on the establishments, and for extraordinary expences, an arrear amounting to 373,706 l. 13s. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. a sum of 600,000 l. will probably be now wanting to supply the deficiencies on the establishments and extraordinary charges of government: and an annual sum of between 50 and 60,000 l. yearly, to pay interest and annuities: in the last session 466,000 l. was borrowed; if the sum wanting could now be raised, the debt would be increased in a sum of above 1,000,000 l. in less than three years, and if the expences and the revenues should continue the same as in the last two years, there is a probability of an annual deficiency of 200,000 l. The nation in the last two years has not been able to pay for its own defence; a militia law, passed in the last session, could not be carried into execution for want of money. Instead of paying forces abroad, Ireland has not been able in this year to pay the forces kept in the kingdom: it has again relapsed into its ancient state of imbecility, and Great Britain has been lately obliged to send over money to pay the army which defends this impoverished country.

Among the causes of this distress, the author mentions the American rebellion, which has greatly lessened the demand for Irish linens; an embargo on provisions, which has continued three years; with the increasing drain of remittances to England for rents, salaries, profits of offices, pensions and interest, and for the payment of forces abroad. These several causes, however, the author observes, though they have much increased the national distress, are none of them the sources from which this originally flowed.

In the second Letter, the author investigates the essential evils to which the distress of Ireland ought to be imputed. In prosecuting this subject, he considers the state of Ireland at different periods; beginning with the settlement of that country by king James to the year 1641. He afterwards resumes the

the enquiry at the Restoration, and traces it to the Revolution; continuing it thence to the year 1699, when an act was passed in England restraining the exportation of all woollen manufactures from Ireland. From this epoch the author dates the various distresses of that country; and he confirms his opinion by taking a view of the prosperity which the kingdom had formerly enjoyed.

The third Letter contains an account of the state of Ireland, from the death of queen Anne to the year 1755; and the fourth continues the subject from this period to the year 1779. It appears, that the lower orders of the people in Ireland were in great distress in 1765, 1771, 1778, and 1779; and there being no natural nor accidental causes of that effect, the author reasonably ascribes it to mistaken policy.

In the fifth Letter, the author observes, that the English law, prohibiting the exportation of cattle, forced the Irish to increase their breed of sheep; and that the woollen manufacture was cultivated in Ireland for ages before, and for several years after the Revolution, without any appearance of jealousy from England, except an attempt which was made in the administration of lord Strafford. After reciting the history of the act of parliament, prohibiting the exportation of woollen manufactures from Ireland, the author examines how far the apprehension which the English entertained of their being deprived of this branch of trade by the Irish, was well founded.

‘ Spinning, says he, is now certainly cheaper in Ireland, because the persons employed in it live on food with which the English would not be content; but the wages of spinners would soon rise if the trade was opened. At the loom, I am informed, that the same quantity of work is done cheaper in England than in Ireland; and we have the misfortune of daily experience to convince us that the English, notwithstanding the supposed advantages of the Irish in this trade, undersell them at their own markets in every branch of the woollen manufacture. A decisive proof that they cannot undersell the English in foreign markets.

‘ With the increase of manufactures, agriculture, and commerce in Ireland, the demand for labour, and consequently its price, would increase. That price would be soon higher in Ireland than in England. It is not in the richest countries, but in those that are growing rich the fastest, that the wages of labour are highest, though the price of provisions is much lower in the latter; this, before the present rebellion, was in both respects the case of England and North America. Any difference in the price of labour is more than balanced by the difference in the price of the material, which has been for many years past higher in Ireland than in England, and would become more valuable

if the export of the manufacture was allowed. The English have also great advantages in this trade from their habits of diligence, superior skill, and large capitals. From these circumstances, though the Scotch have full liberty to export their woollen manufactures, the English work up their wool, and the Scotch make only some kinds of coarse cloths for the lower classes of their people; and this is said to be for want of a capital to manufacture it at home. If the woollen trade was now open to Ireland, it would be for the most part carried on by English capitals, and by merchants resident there. Nearly one half of the stock which carried on the foreign trade of Ireland in 1672, inconsiderable as it then was, belonged to those who lived out of Ireland. The greater part of the exportation and coasting trade of British America was carried on by the capitals of merchants who resided in Great Britain; even many of the stores and ware-houses from which goods were retailed in some of their principal provinces, particularly in Virginia and Maryland, belonged to merchants who resided in Great Britain, and the retail trade was carried on by those who were not resident in the country. It is said that in ancient Egypt, China, and Indostan, the greater part of their exportation trade was carried on by foreigners. The same thing happened formerly in Ireland, where the whole commerce of the country was carried on by the Dutch; and at present in the victualling trade of Ireland, the Irish are but factors to the English. This is not without example in Great Britain, where there are many little manufacturing towns, the inhabitants of which have not capitals sufficient to transport the produce of their own industry to those distant markets where there is demand and consumption for it, and their merchants are properly only the agents of wealthier merchants, who reside in some of the greater commercial cities. The Irish are deficient in all kind of stock, they have not sufficient for the cultivation of their lands, and are deficient in the stocks of master manufacturers, wholesale merchants, and even of retailers.

• Of what Ireland gains it is computed that one third centers in Great Britain. Of our woollen manufacture the greatest part of the profit would go directly there. But the manufacturers of Ireland would be employed, would be enabled to buy from the farmers the superfluous produce of their labour, the people would become industrious, their numbers would greatly increase, the British state would be strengthened, though probably this country would not for many years find any great influx of wealth; it would be however more equally distributed, from which the people and the government would derive many important advantages.

• Whatever wealth might be gained by Ireland would be, in every respect an accession to Great Britain. Not only a considerable part of it would flow to the seat of government, and of final judicature, and to the centre of commerce; but when Ireland should be able she would be found willing, as in justice she ought

Ought to be, to bear a part of those burthens under which Great Britain labours, in her efforts for the protection of the whole British empire. If Ireland cheerfully and spontaneously, but when she was ill able, contributed, particularly in the years 1759, 1761, and 1769, and continued to do so in the midst of distress and poverty, without murmur, to the end of the year 1778, when Great Britain thought proper to relieve her from a burden which she was no longer able to bear, no doubt can be entertained of her contributing, in a much greater proportion, when the means of acquiring shall be opened to her.

It is afterwards clearly evinced, that the act which prohibited the exportation of Irish woollen manufactures instead of benefiting England, actually operated to her disadvantage, by encouraging the smuggling of wool from Ireland to France, and enabling the latter to undersell us in this profitable branch of commerce.

In the sixth letter the author considers the linen manufacture of Ireland, which he shews is far too inconsiderable for advancing the prosperity of the kingdom. In treating of this subject, he observes, that America, the opening of whose markets to Irish linens was thought to have been one of the principal encouragements to the trade, is now become a rival and an enemy, and when she puts off the latter character, will appear with new force and infinite advantage. This conjecture is rendered the more probable, when we consider not only the extent of land which, in America, is to spare for this impoverishing production, but likewise what is mentioned by the author in the following passage.

‘ That some parts of Ireland may produce good flax must be allowed, and also that part of Flanders would produce fine wool. But though the legislature has for many years made it a capital object to encourage the growth of flax and the raising of flax-seed in this kingdom, yet it is obliged to pay above 9000*l.* yearly in premiums on the importation of flax-seed, which is now almost all imported, and costs us between 70 and 80,000*l.* yearly. Flax-farming, in any large quantity, is become a precarious and losing trade, and those who have been induced to attempt it by premiums from the linen-board have, after receiving those premiums, generally found themselves losers, and have declined that branch of tillage.

‘ When the imported flax-seed is unsound and fails in particular districts, which very frequently happens, the distress, confusion and litigation that arise among manufacturers, farmers, retailers, and merchants, afford a melancholy proof of the dangerous consequences to a populous nation, when the industry of the people, and the hope of the rising year rest on a single manufacture, for the materials of which we must depend upon the courtesy and good faith of other nations.’

In the seventh letter, the author enumerates various restrictions on the Irish trade, which have proved highly prejudicial to the kingdom. In the eighth, he shews, that the state of Ireland, at the time of making those laws, was totally different from the present; and that a perseverance in restrictive policy will be ruinous to the trade of Great Britain.

In the ninth letter, he observes, that various prohibitions and restraints give the British a great advantage over the Irish in every species of trade and manufacture, particularly in the linen and woollen; and he shews, that the extension of the commerce of Ireland would open new sources of trade to the British merchant.

The state of facts contained in these letters is extracted from the best authorities, chiefly the English and Irish statutes, and the parliamentary journals of both kingdoms; and if therefore their authenticity be unquestionable, the judicious observations which this intelligent writer makes appear to be equally well-founded. Though his principal object be the interest of Ireland, he seems to be less actuated with the warmth of a national partizan than of a friend to the commerce both of that kingdom and Great Britain. Nor can we doubt, that had the restraints on the Irish trade not yet been removed by the legislature, his remarks and arguments would have had great weight in urging the expediency of the measure which has been adopted.

Memoirs of the Marshal Duke of Berwick. Written by Himself.
With a summary Continuation from the Year 1716, to his Death
 1734. 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. Cadell.

PERHAPS no species of composition affords greater entertainment than the memoirs of men who have been rendered illustrious by their rank and abilities. If the history of such persons be naturally interesting, it doubly attracts our attention when written by themselves. We are then introduced, as it were, to the acquaintance of the author in person, and behold him in one of the noblest employments of a virtuous mind; that of appealing for the rectitude of his conduct to the impartial determination of posterity. Few men in any age have ventured upon the delicate task of becoming their own biographers. Among those who, in modern times, have distinguished themselves by such an undertaking, one of the most eminent is James the Second, father to the duke of Berwick, and from whom, it is probable that the latter, either by precept or example, derived the first idea of the work now under our consideration.

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The original editor of those Memoirs is said to be Mr. Hooke, a doctor of the Sorbonne, and son of the gentleman of that name who wrote the Roman History. Prefixed to the translation, is a Sketch of a Historical Panegyric of the Marshal of Berwick, by the President Montesquieu, between whom and the duke there appears to have subsisted a great friendship. The Panegyric contains a short account of the principal events in the marshal's life; but these being related by himself, we shall afterwards mention them upon his own authority. It is sufficient to extract from the Panegyric such traits of the marshal's character as could not be drawn by his own pen.

Of the private character of this great man, the president Montesquieu delivers the following account:

‘ He scarce obtained any favours which were not offered to him: when his own interest was concerned, it was always necessary to push him on.—His reserved and rather dry look, which was sometimes even inclined to severity, made him appear at times as if he were not in his proper element, in our country, if it were possible that great souls and personal merit could be confined to any one nation.

‘ He knew not how to say those things that are usually called pretty things. He was more especially free from those numberless errors into which persons, who are overfond of themselves, are continually falling.—He was determined, for the most part, by his own judgment; and if, on the one hand, he had not too high an opinion, on the other, he had no distrust of himself; he considered and knew himself with as much penetration, as he viewed all other objects.—No man ever knew better how to avoid excesses, or, if I may venture to use the expression, to keep clear of the snares of virtue: for example, he was fond of the clergy: he readily enough accommodated himself to the modesty of their station; but he could not bear to be governed by them; especially if they transgressed in the least article the limits of their duty: he required more of them than they would have required of him.—It was impossible to behold him, and not be in love with virtue, so evident was tranquillity and happiness in his soul, particularly when he was compared with others who were agitated by various passions.—In the works of Plutarch, I have seen at a distance what great men were: in him I beheld in a nearer view what they are. I was only acquainted with him in private life: I never saw the hero, but the man from whom the hero issued.—He loved his friends: it was his custom to do services, and not to speak of them: thus the benefit was dispensed by an invisible hand.—He had a great fund of religion. No man ever followed more strictly those laws of the gospel, which are most troublesome to men of the world: in a word, no man ever practised religion so much, and talked of it so little.—He never spoke ill of any one; and at the same time never bestowed any praise upon those whom he did not think deserving of it.—

He held in aversion those controversies, which, under pretence of the glory of God, are nothing more than personal disputes. He had learned from the misfortunes of the king his father, that we expose ourselves to commit great errors, when we have too much faith even in persons of the most respectable character.— When he was appointed commandant in Guyenne, we were alarmed at the report of his gravity; but soon after his arrival he was beloved by every body, and there is no place where his great qualities have been more admired.

‘No man ever gave a brighter example of the contempt we ought to have for money.— There was a simplicity in all his expences, which ought to have made him very easy in his circumstances; for he indulged himself in no frivolous expence; nevertheless he was always in arrears, because, notwithstanding his natural economy, his expences were great. In the governments he was appointed to, every English or Irish family that was poor, and that had any sort of connection with any one of his house, had a kind of right to be introduced to him; and it is remarkable, that a man who knew how to maintain so much order in his army, and shewed so much judgment in all his projects, should lose all these advantageous talents, when his own private interest was concerned.

‘He was not one of those persons, who are sometimes complaining of the authors of any misfortune, and at other times flattering them; when he had a cause of complaint against any man, he went directly to him, and told him his sentiments freely, after which he said no more.’

The duke of Berwick was born on the twenty-first of August, 1670. He was the son of James, duke of York, afterwards king of England, and of Miss Arabella Churchill, sister to the duke of Marlborough. Such indeed, says Montesquieu, was the fate of the house of Churchill, that it gave birth to two men, who were destined, at the same time, each of them to shake, and to support, the two greatest monarchies of Europe.

The duke of Berwick informs us, that at seven years of age he was sent into France, to be educated in the Catholic religion. He was placed, with his brother, afterwards duke of Albemarle, at Jully, where the duke of Monmouth, natural son of Charles the Second, had also studied. At the death of father Gough, to whom the care of their education had been entrusted, the two brothers were removed to the college of Plessis, till the year 1684, when the duke of York desiring to see them, they repaired to England. Their father presented them to the king, who received them with great kindness, and offered to give the youth who is the subject of these Memoirs a title, which, however, was declined by the duke of York. The two young visitants were sent back to France to finish their studies, and by the advice of father Peters, were placed at La Fleche, whence the

the author of the narrative was removed to Paris, to go through his exercises. At the age of fifteen he quitted the academy, and went into Hungary, where he served a campaign in the Imperial army, which was destined to the siege of Buda. In 1687, after passing the winter at the court of London, he was created duke of Berwick; till which time he was only called M. Fitz-James. In the spring he returned to Hungary, where the emperor gave him a commission of colonel, with the command of the regiment of cuirassiers of Taaf.

Towards the end of the same year the duke again arrived in England, where the king immediately bestowed on him the government of Portsmouth, and the county of Southampton. Next summer he obtained lord Ferrers's regiment of infantry, and soon after the earl of Oxford's regiment of horse-guards. It would be injurious to suppose that this promotion, however early and rapid, proceeded from the undiscerning partiality of parental fondness: for though the duke was not then eighteen years of age, he appears to have already discovered uncommon military talents, which soon after became conspicuous during the war in Ireland.

In this part of the Memoirs he mentions, in the following terms, the birth of the king's legitimate son.

'On the 20th of June, the queen was brought to bed in St. James's palace, of a prince, who, according to the custom of the kingdom, was immediately created prince of Wales. The queen dowager, the chancellor, and all persons of rank at court and in the city, were in the queen's chamber, at the time of his birth; the king having taken care to order that they should be apprized of it; the princess of Denmark, the king's daughter, was absent, and it is thought that she went purposely to Bath, in order not to be present at the lying-in.

'The prince of Orange sent count Quilestein to pay his compliments to the king in form: but at the same time much chagrined to see himself removed to a distance from the throne, by the birth of a prince, he employed emissaries in all parts, to insinuate that this child was not born of the queen, but that the Catholics had furnished a supposititious one, in order that the crown might devolve on an heir of their religion. There were no sorts of falsehoods, impostures and artifices, that were not made use of to endeavour to make this calumny probable; and the princess of Denmark's silence upon this point, served to increase the suspicions. She was the more to blame, as she was better acquainted than any other person with the reality of the queen's pregnancy, having often put her hand upon the naked belly of the queen, and felt the child move. It is true, that since the revolution, she has written to the king her father, to ask his pardon for all she had done against him; but these are vain words, which have not repaired the misfortunes of his family.'

The subsequent anecdote receives additional weight from the candour and ingenuous modesty with which it is introduced :

‘ Though I would willingly conceal lord Churchill’s faults, I cannot avoid mentioning one pretty remarkable circumstance. The king intended to go from Salisbury in my coach, to visit the quarter commanded by major general Kirk ; but was prevented by a prodigious bleeding of the nose, which seized him on a sudden ; and it is said, that a scheme was laid, and the measures taken by Churchill and Kirk, to deliver up the king to the prince of Orange : but this accident frustrated the design.’

The military capacity of the young duke is strongly marked by his observations relative to the defence of Portsmouth, of which he was governor at the time of the Revolution. In obedience to the king’s command, he surrendered that town to the prince of Orange, and embarked at Rochester, with the unfortunate monarch, for France. Of the affairs of England at that period the author of the *Memoirs* thus speaks :

‘ As soon as the prince of Orange was informed of the departure of the king, and of his arrival in France, he assembled a convention, at which were present all the nobles of the kingdom, and the deputies of the counties and cities. After much debate, it was at length concluded by a majority of voices, that the king had abdicated, and therefore that the throne was vacant.

‘ The king wrote, from St. Germain, a letter to the convention, to explain to them his reasons for retiring into France ; and to forbid them, at the same time, to proceed in any matter, contrary to his interest and authority : but they would not receive his letter ; and soon after they transferred the crown to the prince and princess of Orange, or rather elected them king and queen of England.

‘ I do not purpose to make a long discourse here, to prove the irregularity of all these proceedings in England ; I shall only say, that no prince has ever been prohibited by any custom or law, from going out of one of his kingdoms, without the leave of his subjects, and that it is absurd to advance, that in doing this, he abdicates ; abdication being a voluntary resignation, made either by word of mouth, or in writing, or at least by silence not compelled, after an explanation has been urged. The king was never in either of these cases ; he was a prisoner, and in order to get out of the hands of his enemies, was obliged to take refuge where he could. Besides, it was not possible for him to join his faithful subjects in Scotland, or Ireland, but by the way of France ; for all England being in rebellion, he could not pass through the whole of that kingdom without great danger : but supposing it to be true, that the king had abdicated ; the crown then, according to the fundamental laws of the kingdom, would have devolved, *ipso facto*, on the immediate heir, who being then only a child in the cradle, could not have committed
any

any crime, or abdicated. The prince of Wales, his son, had been acknowledged as such by all Europe, by all the English nation, and even by the prince of Orange: the prince of Wales therefore was king; and in order to acknowledge another, it must have been proved that this was a supposititious child; a circumstance which no one has ever ventured to undertake, inasmuch as no prince ever came into the world in presence of so many witnesses as he did; as it was proved in full council and meeting of persons of distinction, a little before the prince of Orange's invasion. I could speak knowingly on the subject, for I was present; and notwithstanding my respect and attachment to the king, I could never have consented to connive at so detestable an action, as that of introducing a supposititious child, in order to deprive the true heirs of the crown; neither should I have continued after the king's death to support the pretensions of an impostor; honour and conscience would have forbidden me.

‘ I shall add this one observation. The prince of Orange, by his declaration, when he went into England, gave out that he came with no other intention than to prevent the subversion of the church of England, and to examine into the birth of the prince of Wales.

‘ With regard to the first point, he effected it by dethroning a Catholic king; but at the same time he subverted one of the principal articles of the English church, which had before piqued itself upon supporting the doctrine of passive obedience. With regard to the second point, I have already said, that the prince of Orange never ventured to have it discussed; neither indeed was it any longer necessary for him, since he had been declared king: his emissaries have even often been desirous of advancing that he held the crown only by right of conquest, as William the Conqueror had done.’

In March 1689, the duke of Berwick, with his father, arrived at Kinsale, in Ireland, where he assumed an active part in the war which broke forth in that country. He soon distinguished himself by an act of military skill and courage at Donnegal, and afterwards at Inniskillin.

We are informed that the prince of Orange, seeing the failure of his attack on Limerick, and that he had lost his best troops in it, resolved to raise the siege. He gave out through Europe that the continual rains had been the cause of it: but I can affirm, says the duke, that not a single drop of rain fell for above a month before, or for three weeks after.

In February 1691, the duke quitted Ireland, and repaired to France, whence he accompanied Lewis the Fourteenth to the war in Flanders, as a volunteer.

Besides great military talents, the young duke of Berwick appears to have been endowed with no small degree of penetration into the characters of men. Of this we meet with an instance

instance in his account of the principal persons who took part in the war in Ireland.

* Richard Talbot, duke of Tyrconnel, was a native of Ireland, of a good family: his stature was above the ordinary size; he had great experience of the world, having been early introduced into the best company, and possessed of an honourable employment in the household of the duke of York; who, upon his succession to the crown, raised him to the dignity of an earl, and well knowing his zeal and attachment, made him soon after viceroy of Ireland. He was a man of very good sense, very obliging, but immoderately vain, and full of cunning. Though he had acquired great possessions, it could not be said, that he had employed improper means, for he never appeared to have a passion for money. He had not a military genius, but much courage. After the prince of Orange's invasion, his firmness preserved Ireland, and he nobly refused all the offers that were made to induce him to submit. From the time of the battle of the Boyne, he sank prodigiously, being become as irresolute in his mind, as unwieldy in his person.

* Patrick Sarsfield was by birth a gentleman, and succeeded, by the death of his elder brother, to an estate of about two thousand pounds a year. He was a man of an amazing stature, utterly void of sense, very good-natured, and very brave. He had served as ensign in France, in the regiment of Monmouth, and had also been lieutenant of the life-guards in England. When the king went over to Ireland, he gave him a regiment of cavalry, and made him brigadier. The affair of the convoy, in which he was victorious, elated him so much, that he thought himself the greatest general in the world. Henry Luttrell contributed as much as possible to turn his head, by incessantly praising him in all companies; not out of any real esteem he had for him, but to make him popular, and by that means render him subservient to his own designs. In effect, the Irish in general conceived so high an opinion of him, that the king, to gratify him, created him earl of Lucan, and in the next promotion made him major-general. After the capitulation of Limerick, he went over to France, where the king gave him a troop of life-guards, and the most Christian king made him major-general. He was killed in 1693, at the battle of Neerwinden.

* Henry Luttrell was a gentleman of Ireland, and had served some campaigns as a subaltern in France; he had a great share of sense, a great share of address, a great share of courage, and was a good officer; capable of any thing to accomplish his ends. From the taking of Galway, he was suspected of a correspondence with the enemy, insomuch that lord Lucan, his intimate friend, put him in arrest at Limerick, by order of the duke of Tyrconnel. After the capitulation of that place, the prince of Orange gave him his elder brother's estate, and also a pension of

two thousand crowns. He was assassinated at Dublin in 1717, nor could it ever be discovered by whom.

In the campaign of 1693, the author of the *Memoirs* was made prisoner by his uncle, brigadier Churchill, brother to the duke of Marlborough. He tells us, that on being brought to the prince of Orange, the latter made him a very polite compliment, to which he only replied by a low bow. After looking stedfastly at him for an instant, the prince put on his hat, and the duke his.

In 1695, the duke of Berwick married a daughter of the earl of Clanrickard; but she dying in 1698, he, in two years after, on returning from a tour in Italy, married Miss Bulkely, niece to the lord of that name.

The duke gives the following character of the prince of Orange, otherwise king William III. of England:

‘Whatever reason I may have not to be fond of the memory of this prince, I cannot deny him the character of a great man, and even of a great king, had he not been an usurper. He had the art even from his youth to render himself almost absolute in his republic, notwithstanding the credit and authority of the De Witts. He had a very extensive understanding, was an able politician, and was never discouraged in his pursuits, whatever obstacles he might meet with. He was very rigid, but not naturally cruel: very enterprising, but no general. He was suspected of not having much courage; yet it must be acknowledged, that at least he had courage as far as to the drawing of his sword. His ambition was evident in all his intrigues to dethrone a prince who was his uncle, and his father-in-law; in which he could not have succeeded but by numbers of ways, as contrary to the duties of an honest man, as they are repugnant to Christianity.’

In relating the occurrences of the year 1702, the duke informs us, that the remainder of these *Memoirs* will be found more circumstantial, because he began this year to set down regularly every thing that passed.—But this part of the work we shall reserve for our next Review.

An Account of the Methods pursued in the Treatment of Cancerous and Schirrhous Disorders, and other Indurations. By J. O. Justamond, F. R. S. 8vo. 3s. Cadell.

THIS treatise is divided into three parts, in the first of which the author treats of ulcerated cancers; in the second, he considers schirrhous tumors, or occult cancers; and in the third, the disorder commonly called the milk-breast, or the coagulation of milk, and the consequent formation of matter in the breasts of child-bed women.

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44 *On the Treatment of Cancerous and Schirrhous Disorders.*

The first cancerous patient whose case Mr. Justamond mentions, was a lady who applied to him in 1770. Her disorder was of a very malignant nature, and she had been afflicted with it upwards of thirteen years. It had originally consisted of two schirrhous tumors, which had been removed about three years before, by Mr. Guy's method.

Mr. Justamond was desirous of prescribing to this patient the hemlock bath, recommended in a treatise which he had some time before translated from the German; but fearing to alarm her by such a proposal at first, he had recourse to the internal use of the extract of hemlock, and the external application of the plant in poultices and fomentations. A year and a half passed away, during which time the patient tried the extract of hemlock, the bark, the sublimate, the carrot poultice, and many other things, without obtaining any relief, but on the contrary, grew considerably worse.

Mr. Justamond next had recourse to a topical application, which was a tincture of equal parts of sal ammoniac and iron in rectified spirit of wine, with the addition of oil of vitriol, and oil of tartar. He informs us that he used it in the following manner:

“I dipped, says he, a small pencil brush into it, and smeared all the edges of the sores, and every part that was indurated with it, taking all possible care that the liquid should not run down into the ulcers themselves. The part besmeared was then suffered to dry; the wounds were covered with dry lint, and the edges with the same. It being scarce possible to prevent some of the liquid, which was extremely sharp, from insinuating itself into the sores, there was generally a degree of smart accompanying the dressing, but this soon subsided. My patient was directed to repeat this application of the liquid to the edges, and to all the indurated parts two or three times a day, or as often as she could bear it. Finding in a little while that there was a visible alteration for the better, I ventured to use the liquid more freely, and after having smeared all the indurated parts as before, dipt in it some pieces of lint or rag doubled, and layed them wet all over the edges and indurations. By this contrivance the liquid remained active upon the parts for a much more considerable space of time, and the patient had nothing more to do, than with the pencil brush to soak the lint again as often as it became dry, or as she could support the smart. When it appeared that the liquid produced an alteration in the edges and indurated parts, I resolved to wash the ulcers themselves with it, lowering it for this purpose with water, and trying the mixture upon my tongue, 'till I judged that it was sufficiently mild. When it happened that the edges were inflamed or excoriated by the frequent use of this sharp liquid, it was suspended till they were recovered, which they generally were in four and twenty hours.

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In this manner I proceeded for about three months, at the expiration of which time the pain of the disease was less, the edges and indurations began to soften, and the discharge from the sores was ameliorated.

Though the sore had a better appearance by the use of this remedy, the patient's constitution was not amended; and therefore Mr. Justamond, reflecting on the good effect produced by the liquid applied externally, imagined that a medicine of a similar nature might be given internally with some prospect of success. The flores martiales occurred to him as the preparation nearest to it. Accordingly this medicine was made up into pills, with a solution of gum Arabic. Each pill contained three grains of the flowers; and the patient took at first two pills in the day. Five grains of the flores martiales were soon after put into each pill, and the dose gradually increased, till twelve such pills were taken in the course of the day.

When this method had been continued six weeks, says the author, my patient's health was visibly mended, her complexion cleared, and her strength much recovered. Encouraged by these promising appearances, and finding that the medicine did not disagree, the dose of the martial flowers was increased to ten grains in each pill, of which pills from twelve to twenty were taken in the day. The only inconvenience ever experienced from this, was, a little sickness at stomach now and then, which was easily removed by a tea spoonful of brandy, or some warm wine, and which might perhaps be as much owing to the swallowing of a number of pills in the day, as to any effect of the medicine. It is to be observed, that upon an average my patient may be said to have taken between two and three drachms of the martial flowers every day, for a long continuance, without inconvenience. A few of my cancerous patients have since taken from three drachms to half an ounce of the same medicine in the same space of time, and likewise without inconvenience; though it must be acknowledged, that this medicine, as well as others, can be borne in much larger quantities by some stomachs than others: so that upon the whole, whether the pills are made with five or ten grains of the medicine, it may be as well to restrain the dose to about two drachms in the day, which from experience I am inclined to think, will not disagree with any patient. And even this, is an almost incredible dose, when we consider how seldom this medicine has been prescribed, and when it has, how sparingly.

In three or four months after the commencement of this medicinal course, the patient was greatly mended in every respect, but the surface of the sore had still a cancerous appearance. Mr. Justamond then resolved to try the external application

cation of arsenic; and for this purpose he used a preparation given him by Dr. Morris, which consisted of equal parts of arsenic, copper, tin, and mercury distilled in spirit of wine, and afterwards in oil of vitriol. By the use of the several topical remedies above mentioned, the indurated parts were resolved, and the ulcer perfectly cicatrised; but a knob which remained at the anterior edge of the part affected, afforded reason to suspect that the virus was not totally eradicated.

Among other applications to cancerous ulcers, Mr. Justamond has tried the effects of fixed air, which has been lately so much recommended; but the only advantage it seemed to produce, was that of correcting the bad smell; an end which was answered as successfully by the flowers of zinc, the calamus aromaticus in powder, and other applications.

From all Mr. Justamond's observations on the treatment of this terrible disorder, it appears that the most powerful remedies which he tried were insufficient for effecting a perfect cure of the disease. He has, however, prosecuted the investigation with laudable industry, and at least, ascertained the effects of the various remedies which have been used.

In the second part of the treatise, Mr. Justamond delivers the method of cure which he has used in schirrhous tumors, or occult cancers. In those complaints the principal remedy was also the flores martiales, with such topical applications as were indicated by the state of the tumor.

In the third part of the work, or that which relates to the method of treating the coagulation of milk in the breasts of women, the remedy which the author chiefly used was a composition, consisting of three ounces of salt ammoniac, dissolved in a pint of common water, to which an equal quantity of Hungary water was added. Rags dipped in this liquor a little warm, were applied to the whole surface of the breast; and anodyne fomentations, when necessary, were used with it.

This treatise, in its several parts, comprehends an account of cancerous disorders from their earliest production to the period of their ulcerated state; and in the various stages of their progress, Mr. Justamond has endeavoured to discover the most effectual remedies.

Practical Observations upon Amputation, and After-Treatment. By Edward Alanson. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivington.

MR. Alanson presents the public with these Observations from a thorough persuasion, that according to the common method of amputating, too little skin is saved. The muscles, he remarks, are generally divided by a perpendicular circular inci-

incision, no union is attempted by the first intention, the parts are dressed with dry lint, and by many the arteries tied with the needle, including nerves, veins, and the adjacent parts. This mode of practice, he farther observes, will frequently produce spasms, brisk symptomatic fever, hæmorrhage, a great discharge of matter, retraction of the muscles, and exfoliation. To prevent these several inconveniencies is the author's design in the treatise now before us.

Mr. Alanson begins with describing the common method of performing amputation, as directed by the most eminent surgical writers, from whom he differs in opinion respecting the application of the tape, the quantity of skin saved, and the manner of executing the double incision.

The author insists strongly on exploding the use of the tape in amputation, for the following reasons.

‘ The mental sufferings of the diseased will ever be considered, by the humane practitioner, as highly intitled to his attention ; and we cannot avoid observing, that after the tourniquet is applied, every moment's delay detains the patient in a most painful state of mind, which the application of the tape greatly prolongs ; therefore, if not attended with adequate superior advantages, here is sufficient reason for exploding its use. Therefore, as soon as the tourniquet is applied, let an assistant grasp the limb circularly with both hands, and firmly draw the skin and muscles upwards ; the operator now fixing his eye upon the proper part, will make the circular incision through the skin and adipose membrane, with considerable facility and dispatch, and the knife will pass much quicker, in consequence of the tense state in which the parts are supported ; and the operator's attention not being confined to cut in the exact direction of the tape, will enable him to execute in half the time.

‘ Hence it appears, that the application of the tape occasions a considerable and anxious state of delay, previous to the circular incision, and likewise is a great obstacle to the speedy execution of it.’

Mr. Alanson next describes the method commonly recommended for performing the double incision, which he also thinks capable of great improvement. By adopting the deviation which he advises, he observes that the surgeon will be enabled to saw off the bone much higher than is usually practised ; and that the parts so divided, are much more fit to cover the bone, approximate, and unite.

‘ Instead of applying the knife, says he, close to the edge of the integuments, and dividing the muscles in a circular manner down to the bone, let it be done as follows : we will suppose you are operating upon the thigh ; apply the edge of your knife, under the edge of the supported integuments, and cut obliquely through

through the muscles; upwards as to the limb, and down to the bone; so as to lay it bare, about three or four fingers breadth higher than you would by the usual perpendicular circular incision, and continue to divide the parts all round the limb, guiding the knife in the same direction: the speedy execution of this incision will be much expedited, by the assistant continuing a firm and steady elevation of the parts, as the knife acts. With the assistance of the leather retractor, as advised by Gooch, and Bromfield, you will now saw off the bone higher than is usually practised, which is a considerable advantage, and coincides with the original intention of the double incision: viz. to prevent a projection of the bone, and form a small cicatrix.

A stump thus formed in the thigh, if you support the parts gently forwards, after the operation; viewing the whole surface of the wound, may be said in some degree to resemble a cone, the apex of which is the extremity of the bone: the parts thus divided, are obviously the best calculated to prevent a sugar-loaf stump.

In considering the treatment after the operation, the author likewise sets out with taking a view of the directions given by the best surgical writers on the subject; and after several pertinent remarks interspersed in the narrative, he relates the method of amputating the thigh, and the after-treatment, as practised in the Liverpool infirmary.

Apply the tournequet as usual, and let an assistant draw up the skin and muscles, by firmly grasping the limb with both hands, the operator then makes the circular incision as quick as possible through the skin, and membrana adiposa, down to the muscles: he next separates the cellular and membranous attachments with the edge of his knife, till as much skin is drawn back as will afterwards cover the surface of the stump with the most perfect ease. The assistant still firmly supporting the parts as before, apply the edge of your knife under the edge of the retracted integuments, and cut obliquely through the muscles upwards as to the limb, and down to the bone; or, in other words, cut in such a direction, as to lay the bone bare about two or three fingers breadth higher than is usually done by the common perpendicular circular incision, and continue to divide, or dig, out the muscles all round the limb, by guiding the knife in the same direction. The part where the bone is to be laid bare, whether two, three, or four fingers breadth higher than the edge of the retracted integuments, or, in other words, the quantity of muscular substance to be digged out, in making the double incision, must be regulated by considering the length of the limb, and the quantity of skin that has been previously saved, by dividing the membranous attachments. The quantity of skin saved, and muscular substance taken out, must be in such an exact proportion to each other, as that by a removal of both, the whole surface of the wound will afterwards be easily covered,

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and the length of the limb not more shortened than is necessary to obtain this end. The bone being now bare all round, is to be divided, as usual, with the saw, and as high up as possible, which will be more easily executed, if the retractor, recommended by Gooch and Bromfield, is first applied, for the support and defence of the soft parts.

After the removal of the limb, let each bleeding artery be gently drawn out with the tenaculum, and tied with a common ligature as naked as possible. The whole surface of the wound is now to be well cleaned with a sponge and warm water, as no doubt any coagula remaining upon its surface, or about the interstices of the muscles, would be a considerable obstruction to that desired union, which we have always in view through the whole plan. Let the skin and muscles be gently brought forwards; then fix the flannel circular roller round the body, and carry it two or three times round the upper part of the thigh, where it will form a sufficient basis, that will greatly add to the support of the skin and muscles; then carry it forwards in a circular direction till it arrives sufficiently near the extremity of the stump, where it is to be fastened as usual. You are now to place the skin and muscles over the extremity of the bone, in such a direction, that the wound shall appear only as a line, drawn down the face of the stump, terminating with an angle, above and below, from the latter of which the ligatures are to be left out, it being the most convenient and dependent part. The skin is easily secured in this posture, by long slips of linen, or lint, about two fingers breadth, spread with cerate, or any soft cooling ointment; these are to be brought from side to side across the face of the stump; then apply over them a little soft lint, with a tow pledget, and compress of linen, the whole to be retained with a light linen roller.

It is the usual custom, to raise the end of the stump from the surface of the bed with pillows; which appears to me very injudicious, when done to the height commonly practised, as it draws the posterior muscles off the face of the stump. I find the best direction is to raise the stump about half a hand's breadth from the surface of the bed.

When the whole of the treatment has been agreeable to the foregoing directions, the parts are generally so free from spasms, that the use of opium is not requisite; the symptomatic fever will likewise be equally moderate; and upon the third or fourth day, when you change the dressings, you will always find that the discharge has been so small, as scarcely to have run through them: hence it is not often necessary to change the circular bandage, at the first or second dressing; I rather wish to avoid it, till the adhesions are more complete.

By a continuance of the above simple treatment, varied as appearances indicate, the cures have been always completed in less time than usual. In the thigh the stump has frequently healed in nineteen days, so perfectly as to require no farther dressing.

Mr. Alanson informs us, that since he has practised the method of operating and dressing here recommended, he has not observed the smallest exfoliation, nor ever seen any part of the extremity of the bone after the operation. For by dividing the muscles as advised, and bringing the whole of the soft parts forwards, the bone is immediately concealed, and never gives the least interruption to the progress of the cure.

The author remarks, that if we examine the writings of the best surgical authors, we shall find that but few, even in the greatest run of practice, have amputated the arm at its articulation with the scapula; and likewise be convinced, that but little satisfactory information is to be obtained on this subject, if we except what has been communicated by Mr. Bromfield. As an extraordinary case in surgery, Mr. Alanson gives a distinct account of his amputating, with success, the arm at its articulation with the scapula, in a very unpromising case of gunshot wound.

The observations are followed by a Postscript, which we shall lay before our readers.

‘ Since the foregoing sheets were finished, I have heard of one instance, where hæmorrhage followed our treatment; but it was from the whole surface of the stump: and I am now in consultation upon a similar case, after an amputation in the fore-arm, occasioned by a complete sphacelus of the hand after a compound fracture above the wrist: as this kind of hæmorrhage is a consequence of a peculiarly diseased state of the whole system, it cannot be certainly prevented by a topical treatment of the wound.

‘ I am now of opinion, that, in general, it is the most judicious, to place the skin so as to form the line across the face of the stump, from side to side, the discharge is so small, that a depending drain is not a necessary object: the ligatures are the most conveniently left out at the inner angle, in the arm and thigh, on account of the vicinity of the great artery, in the fore-arm and leg, they may be left out at either angle. The patient should be directed to keep out of bed every day after the first dressing, as long as his strength will permit, which will considerably restore and preserve his general health; the usual mode of confining the patient to bed will sometimes produce or continue hectic fever, debility, diarrhoea, &c.

‘ Those who have had this plan of treatment described to them, object to it, upon a supposition that the ligatures will be troublesome, and get fixed in the part; however, experience is the best guide in these matters; the ligatures, when made as here directed, have always sufficiently secured the vessels, separated easily and speedily, nor have I seen one instance, where the cures have been protracted by them.

‘ I am far from thinking that the operation and after-treatment will not yet admit of farther improvements, in the hands
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of the judicious and candid practitioner; however, if he has the success, upon a trial of the means here recommended, that has attended their use under my observation, I hope it will appear, that I have not either misapplied my time, or mislead the public.'

As Mr. Alanson writes from experience, and his observations are judicious, we need not add that they are entitled to the notice of every practitioner in surgery.

History of a French Louse; or the Spy of a new Species, in France and England. 8vo. 3s. Becket.

THE creeping creature, who is the subject of these memoirs, conveys, we believe, though we know not why, a more disgusting idea to an Englishman than to our neighbours the French. The original author, therefore, whoever he is, (for this, we are told, is only a translation,) has ventured to make him the hero of his tale, and used him as a vehicle for satire on some distinguished characters well known in the political world. The pamphlet is apparently written in favour of administration, and with a view of turning into ridicule the ministers of France, the American congress, and the patriots of England. The scene, notwithstanding, is supposed to lie in Paris, and the Louse is born in the head of a courtesan, from whence he is transplanted to that of a clerk of the parliament, to a countess, to the queen of France, to a washerwoman, and from thence to Mad. D'Eon, with whom he goes to dine at the house of *his excellency* Dr. Benjamin Franklin, of whom he gives the following, not unentertaining, description:

'By good fortune, says he, I found myself placed directly opposite to monsieur ambassador; and here I must acknowledge that I was not able to forbear laughing heartily when I contemplated the grotesque figure of this original, who, with a vulgar person and mean appearance, affected the air and gestures of a fop. A sun-burnt complexion, a wrinkled forehead, warts in many places, which might be said to be as graceful in him as the moles that distinguished the sweet face of the countess of Barry. With these he had the advantage of a double chin, to which was added a great bulk of nose, and teeth which might have been taken for cloves had they not been set fast in a thick jaw. This, or something very like this, is the true picture of his excellency. As for his eyes I could not distinguish them, because of the situation I was in; and besides a large pair of spectacles hid two thirds of his face.'

He afterwards gives us the history of this illustrious old fox, in a curious dialogue between Mons. Benjamin le Frank and

his neighbour.—As this is one of the best parts of this lousy performance, we shall here subjoin it for the entertainment of our readers.

‘ *B. le Frank.* Dr. F. was born at Boston, in New England ; his parents were in low circumstances, and could not give him a very liberal education ; his first employment was that of a workman to a printer. Behold him then in reality a *man of letters* ; for you know, neighbour, that a printer is more than any other a *man of letters*, since if there were no printers we could not have any books. He gained near half a crown a day by his labour, and having access to the books in his master’s shop, he lost no opportunity of instructing himself ; his favourite study was physic, and his favourite author in that science the abbé Nollet, whose speculations in electricity were much in his taste, and to this kind of reading he devoted all his leisure. At the end of some years he took a fancy to go and settle in Philadelphia, which being a more considerable city than Boston, he hoped he should sooner find the means of making his fortune. Being still young when he arrived at Philadelphia, he soon spent all the money he had saved in Boston, and was obliged to engage with a printer there, with whom he lived four years. During this interval he contrived to amass the sum of sixty guineas ; when growing weary of his trade, and having in his physical researches made an important discovery ; namely, that for four-pence a day a man may provide himself with diet, lodging, and every other necessary. “ Well,” said he, “ the money which I have laid by will carry me on a long time, as I can be contented with so small an income.”—He then quitted his master, and lived privately, subsisting for many years upon four-pence a day.

‘ *Neighbour.* I cannot conceive how he did it ; to me it seems impossible.

‘ *B. le Frank.* And yet nothing is more easy ; it requires only resolution : his method was (for I have taken him for my pattern) to purchase for three-pence a quantity of potatoes, which served him for bread and meat both, and of which there was sufficient to subsist on a whole week. A baker roasted them for a halfpenny ; and he bought of a milk woman daily a halfpenny worth of milk ; all this amounted to no more than seven pence a week ; he gave a penny a day for his lodgings in a garret, because he liked neatness and convenience, otherwise he might have accommodated himself at a cheaper rate. He drank small beer mixed with water, and this cost him two pence a week ; the remainder he laid by for dress and pocket-money ; for he employed nobody to wash for him, or to mend his linen and stockings.

‘ Now let us calculate, and you will be convinced that it is not impossible to live upon this sum. Four-pence a day makes twenty-eight pence a week.

• His potatoes, the dressing of them, and his milk, } cost him every week	7
• His lodging	7
• And his beer	2

Total 16

Thus, out of eight-and-twenty pence a week, there remained twelve to make a figure with.

• *Neighbour.* Your account is clearly made out; but I who gain half a crown a day find it difficult to subsist; how then could I make four-pence a day serve me?

• *B. le Frank.* Not unless you were like him, a doctor.

• *Neighbour.* But how did this gentleman of four-pence a day, raise himself to his present elevated station.

• *B. le Frank.* By little and little. The gentleman acquired a profound knowledge of electricity; he commanded the thunderbolt to fall where he pleased; he bid it roar at a distance, and at a distance it roared: he stood on one side of a river, and electrified a dog on the other; the poor animal made piteous moans, but knew not who caused its sufferings. By these rare and wonderful talents he rose to be a collector of the customs for the king of England in the port of Philadelphia, which place brought him in five hundred pounds sterling a year (about twelve thousand livres).

• *Neighbour.* Oh mighty well! this was somewhat better than four-pence a day: but how could he contrive to spend such a sum?

• *B. le Frank.* As to that he acquitted himself extremely well; he took a wife, he had children, a cellar stored with good liquors; a plentiful table. He was then a zealous royalist, because it was for his advantage to be so. He procured his son a commission in the army; and this son continuing steady to his duty and attachment for his Britannic majesty, is still governor of New Jersey for the king. The doctor understands his personal interests perfectly well; perhaps he was apt to attend to them too much, if we may judge by the event; for after being a considerable time in possession of this employment, he was very politely thanked for his services and turned out of it.

• *Neighbour.* So, then, he had recourse to his four-pence a day again; a very disagreeable change to him, surely.

• *B. le Frank.* He left no means untried to get back his place, but he did not succeed; hence originated his animosity to the king, and even to the whole British nation.

• *Neighbour.* But how did he subsist?

• *B. le Frank.* Electricity having taught him that there is fire every where, and in every thing, he took a fancy that by this discovery he might live in the grand stile; accordingly he electrified the minds of the Americans, making them believe that all the evils they suffered proceeded from St. James's palace, in London; that in that palace the resolution was taken to consider

them as slaves, and to force them by an arbitrary exertion of power to pay all the taxes and imposts that interest and caprice could invent. There needed no more to excite a revolt among the doctor's patients; he was sent to London with propositions from them full of insolence, and even injurious to the majesty of the throne: these propositions were rejected as the electrifier expected. When he returned to his own country, he enumerated injuries on the part of the British government towards them which never existed; he enflamed their resentments, counselled them to shake off their chimerical dependence on their mother country; held out the prospect of a glorious freedom to them and their posterity; commenced their legislator, established a form of republican government, and subjected them to the despotism of the congress.'

After this our author makes himself merry with the famous Mr. L—g—t, author of the *Annals of the Eighteenth Century*, and his mistress, with their adventures at Paris and London. This part of our hero's history is rather dull and tedious. There is some humour, however, in the visit which follows to the duke D'A—gné, and the letter to him from the count de V—g—nes, wherein the French minister, modestly supposing Great Britain already subjected to Lewis XVI. sends the duke a plan of their future proceedings, and informs him that our king and queen, with all the royal family, are to be carried to St. Germain's, the male children to enter into the ecclesiastical state, and be made cardinals; the parliament of England is to be split into several little ones, like the parliaments of France, with many other pious designs of the same kind, which are to be adopted as soon as Lewis takes possession of this country. This thought is spun out by appointing lord Sh—— (to whom the Loufe is transferred) viceroy of Ireland for the king of Spain, and the marquis of R——, named by the American congress, protector of the liberties of Scotland. The M. and his company are thus described:

'—The M. was a little ugly black man, very lean, his eyes sunk in his head, which was covered with a peruke; he seems to be about fifty years of age, and enjoyed an estate of forty thousand pounds sterling a year; he hated his sovereign, because, having once enjoyed his favour, he had not been able to pteserve it; and ever since his disgrace, he had employed his utmost endeavours to ruin his successor, and the other secretaries of state.

'Second. Ch—F—x, his person thick and short, a man of wit, artful, and intriguing, who sought to retrieve his affairs by any means, and to make his fortune in the minority, since he could not do it in the opposite party.

'Third. General B——, a zealous partizan of the opposition. The ministers hoped, that by giving him the command

mand of an army, he would abandon his former connections, and serve his country and his prince with fidelity. This brave man, firm to his old attachments, accepted the command of the troops, and gave them up to the Americans, becoming himself a prisoner of war with them.

‘Fourth. The Admiral, so styled by way of eminence by the rest of the guests. This man of consummate experience, although one of the party who opposed the king and his ministers, and a kinsman of my lord duke, was nevertheless chosen by his majesty to command a considerable fleet fitted out to attack an inferior one of France. Swayed by the advice of his cousin, and influenced by the interests of his party, he acted in such a manner as to gain no advantage over the enemy, although superior to them in number; but on the contrary, gave them an opportunity to boast, and with reason, that they had been conquerors.’

This, with two or three strictures of the like kind, form the outlines of this piece, which, though not void of merit, is stretched to the tiresome length of a hundred and thirty pages, the whole essence of which might easily have been contracted into half that number.

The French Louse is, upon the whole, a Louse of some parts and abilities, though, like other geniusses, he rather takes too much pains to display them. Small as this animal is, we should have liked him much better if he had been a little smaller.

Zoraida, a Tragedy, as it is acted at the Theatre Royal in Drury-Lane: To which is added, A Postscript, containing Observations on Tragedy. 8vo. 11. 6d. Keasly.

*F*Ocos tum considera, cum risu destituti sunt, is a precept of the great lord Verulam's, which discovers an intimate knowledge of mankind; for so prone is human nature to dwell on the defects, rather than on the beauties of any subject, whether it relate to moral conduct, or literary ability, that censure, in the one case, though meaning in its origin the expression only of a general opinion, has, by constant usage, become synonymous with blame; and criticism, in the other, though denoting simply judgment, whether of praise, or disapprobation, has been generally applied to the discovery of the faults of a performance; when it might, with equal propriety, have been employed to select its beauties, and ascertain their real worth: nay, not content with employing the weapons of argument, either specious, or solid, criticism has but too frequently dipped its darts in the gall of satire. But of all criterions, ridicule is that which should be last applied in the investigation

igation of any subject; for so great is its sway over the human heart, that the exulting laugh of supercilious ignorance, or the malignant sneer of apprehensive envy, will generally gain more proselytes, than the candid decisions of calm unbiassed reason. Most prudently, therefore, has the great restorer of sound philosophy, and solid sense, guarded us against this contagion by the rule quoted above; guided by which, we sit down regardless of the invectives which have been thrown on the performance before us, to review it with coolness and impartiality.

The fable is entirely eastern, and the characters, sentiments, and language, founded wholly on Turkish manners; the close adherence to which has involved the author in traditions, and expressions, so different from those to which this country is accustomed, that it necessarily must cast a transient obscurity over his piece upon the stage, and expose him to the ridicule of the ignorant; but, as he observes in his postscript, this is not to be weighed against the lasting disgrace to which the falsifying national manners would assuredly expose a writer in the closet; and, he might have added, against the reputation which the just painting of national manners will there secure to him; for one of the most approved plays in our language, the Siege of Damascus, has justly acquired no small share of its fame, from this very consideration.

In the conduct of the fable, the great event which brings on the catastrophe is neither so studiously *hid*, as to make the dénouement the unexpected solution of an incomprehensible enigma, nor so inartificially discovered, as not to afford sufficient ground for curiosity, and expectation. For this purpose, the obscure character of the dervise appears properly adapted; from whom, at the close of the fifth scene of the second act, we are led to expect some event, though we are ignorant which way it will turn. In the progress of the fable, there are several situations well calculated to produce a stage effect, and strongly to interest the passions; particularly the scene in the third act, where Almaimon is going to kill Zoraida; that in the fourth act, where she hears of Almaimon's death; and the situation of the two lovers in the mosque, in the fifth act. In Almaimon are depicted the transports of a mind torn with conflicting passions, too forcible, perhaps, for a just painting of European manners, but certainly not over-charged for the violence of the Asiatic nations. In Selim we behold the amiable exertion of benevolence and magnanimity in relieving the distressed, and forgiving the guilty; while Osman is an instance of a mind deeply impressed with a sense of its injuries, yet of virtue sufficient to be won back to its duty by admiration and gratitude. The sentiments which arise from this display of cha-

character in the fourth act, (where the author seems best to have succeeded in this respect) gives no less energy to this act than the display of situation does to the fifth.

In regard to the ornaments of diction, the fable being eastern, a greater latitude in their use is allowable, than would be proper in a play founded on western manners, as the author's quotation from Jones's Nadir Shah sufficiently evinces. He has, indeed, profited by this propriety to enrich his language with variety of images and allusions; but as we wish not to forestall the curiosity of those who have not read the piece, we shall only observe, without quoting any instances, that the author merits praise for the local propriety which he has preserved in most of his allusions, as in those of the Nile, the Pharos, the Pyramids, with several others naturally adapted to the situation of the scene. Nor has he been less studious of propriety in his observance of the peculiar customs and prejudices of the Mahometan superstition. Indeed, he seems perfectly well acquainted with the distinguishing tenets of the Moslem mythology; such as predestination, and the ministry of angels; the chief of whom, according to Mahomet, are Gabriel, the angel of salvation; Israfil, appointed to blow the last trumpet; and Agraël, the angel of death, called also the inexorable angel, and the angel of destruction. He has taken notice also of that peculiar idea of Mahomet's, that the dews of the waters of Zenzibil, one of the rivers of paradise, are as fragrant as beds of spices; and that the Houris are perfectly chaste, and modest as beautiful, which is the account the Koran gives, though contrary to the idea generally entertained of them. Many other instances occur in the piece of this observance of the costumi; as the allusion to Mahomet's battles and conquests, the tree of Zedrat, feigned by Mahomet to overshadow the mount of Alha, the harps of Paradise, the cleaving the moon in twain, with several others. We rather dwell on these instances of propriety in painting eastern manners, because, though almost every one can discover the beauty and justness of a general image, yet from want of knowing the history of Mahomet, and his peculiar traditions, many are so far from seeing the merit of this propriety, that they are inclined to treat as absurd what is, in reality, the effect of judgment; of which the ribaldry which has been thrown on the asseveration, 'by the seven heavens,' in this play, is a glaring instance; for it is not only most consonant to a sacred part of Mahomet's history, viz. his Night Journey to the Mount of God, but had for years passed unobjected to in the Siege of Damascus. On mentioning the Siege of Damascus,

we

we cannot but take notice of one passage in *Zoraida*, in which its author seems professedly to have entered the lists with Mr. Hughes. The passage we mean is, the speech of Almainon to his soldiers, in the night-scene in the third act, before he attacks the camp of Selim; compared with the speech of Caled at the end of the fourth act of the *Siege of Damascus*. It is, indeed, true, that as Caled and Almainon are both Mahometans, the objects of reward which they hold out to their soldiers, as well as the sources whence they are drawn must be nearly the same; yet the author of *Zoraida* has so contrived to vary his terms, that he preserves an appearance of originality. We have annexed both passages, and shall leave the reader to determine the preference; which he will probably adjudge according as the freedom and continued harmony of blank verse, or the uniform flow and more obvious melody of rhyme, is most agreeable to his ear.

‘ ——— Prepare ye now for boldest deeds,
And know the prophet will reward your valour.
Think that ye all to certain triumph move,
Who falls in fight yet meets the prize above.
Here in the gardens of eternal spring,
While birds of paradise around you sing,
Each with his blooming beauty by his side
Shall drink rich wines that in full rivers glide;
Breathe fragrant gales o’er fields of spice that blow,
And gather fruits immortal as they grow;
Extatic bliss shall your whole powers employ,
And every sense be lost in every joy.

Siege of Damascus, End of act iv.’

‘ ——— Remember the reward
Our dying prophet promis’d. Fall who may,
In such a cause, the everlasting gates
Of paradise shall open to receive
His mounting spirit. There, while crouds of warriors
Hail his arrival, and the rose-lipt Houris
Invite him to their arms, his weary limbs
In spicy Zenzibil’s ambrosial flood
Shall bathe voluptuous; from the nectar’d fruits
That blooms spontaneous on its velvet brink
Imbibe eternity of youth, or laid
On beds of flow’rs, where odoriferous winds
Breathe heavenly fragrance, drain the sparkling goblet
Crown’d with the luscious grape, till ev’ry sense
Be molten with delight, and every hero
Absorb’d in visions of celestial bliss,
Lose all remembrance of his earthly toils.

Zoraida, act iii. scene 1:

Have

Having thus with that candour, which first seeks for what is worthy praise, marked what, in our opinion, entitles Zoraida to an attentive perusal, the impartiality of criticism requires we should also note its defects, before we can with any confidence recommend it to the public. And here we cannot but remark, that the succession of events crowds too fast on the imagination, without allowing time for the heart to interest itself sufficiently in each; that Almaimon, as one of the principal characters, acts not sufficiently from himself, but becomes the instrument of every new design; and that the narrative of the dervise, though necessary to the unfolding the story, should, if possible, have been made shorter; for, according to the author's own principles in his Postscript, a happy catastrophe should be very short. The reflexions of Zoraida also, in her soliloquies, wear sometimes the garb of more serious instruction than is generally expected, or regarded from the stage. The versification, though flowing and harmonious, is, if any thing, too elaborate, while the length of the periods sometimes exceeds the natural exertions of the organs of speech, and renders it difficult to unite the animation of sincerity with the melodious cadence of the voice.

The Postscript annexed to the tragedy was drawn up, the author informs us in his advertisement, as a defence of his play against the animadversions of the daily critics of the newspapers, in which we cannot but think he has in a great measure succeeded. Its purport, to use his own words, is to shew upon what a tragic poet must place his chief dependence of success on the stage, and upon what in the closet; how far the union of these different views is compatible, and how they must be blended so as to produce upon the whole the greatest effect. It contains many judicious remarks, and the author seems so conversant with the subject, and so capable of doing justice to it, that we heartily wish his health and leisure may permit him to complete the plan for which he informs us he has been long collecting materials.—We could willingly indulge ourselves with making extracts from these observations, but as we have already extended this article beyond the bounds usually allotted to such subjects, we shall content ourselves with observing, that the author has judiciously availed himself of the opinions of the best masters of criticism, both ancient and modern; and recommend his remarks to the notice of all who, in this fastidious and inattentive age, exert their efforts to obtain the suffrage of a public audience.

The Fatal Falsehood : a Tragedy. As it is acted at the Theatre-Royal in Covent-Garden. By the Author of Percy. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

THIS tragedy, which has, in our opinion, more intrinsic merit than most of those which have appeared on the stage for some time past, met, like the heroine of it, with a fate which it by no means deserved.—The fable is simple, and in general well conducted; the sentiments not strained, or too refined, but such as naturally arise from a few interesting events; the characters well sustained and contrasted; and the diction smooth, elegant, and perspicuous.

From many beautiful passages which occur in this tragedy, to prove the truth and justice of our opinion with regard to its merit, we shall select only one short scene between Orlando and Julia, in the fourth act, which, had it been properly represented, must, we think, have deeply affected the most insensible audience.—Orlando, it should be premised, already engaged to Emmelina, had fallen in love with Julia, the mistress of his friend, and just on the point of being married to him: he comes in to Julia, and thus discovers it to her:

* *Orlando.* Julia in tears?

* *Julia.* Alas! you have undone me!

Behold the wretched victim of her promise?

I urg'd, at your request, the fatal suit

Which has destroy'd my peace; Rivers suspects me,

And I am wretched.

* *Orlando.* Better 'tis to weep

A temporary ill, than weep for ever;

That anguish must be mine.

* *Julia.* Ha! weep for ever?

Can they know wretchedness who know not love?

* *Orlando.* Not love! oh, cruel friendship! tyrant honour!

* *Julia.* Friendship! alas, how cold is that to love!

* *Orlando.* Too well I know it; both alike destroy me,
I am the slave of both, and more than either

The slave of honour.

* *Julia.* If you then have felt

The bitter agonies——

* *Orlando.* Talk you of agonies?

You who are lov'd again? oh, they are mine,

The pangs, the agonies of hopeless passion,

Yes, I do love—I doat, I die for love.

* *Julia.* I understand you——Emmelina!

* *Orlando.* (Falls at her feet.)

Julia!

* *Julia.*

How?

* *Orlando.* Nay, never start—I know I am a villain;
I know thy hand is destin'd to another,

That

That other is my friend, that friend the man
To whom I owe my life. Yes, I adore thee;
Spite of the black ingratitude, adore thee;
I doat upon my friend, and yet betray him,
I'm bound to Emmelina, yet forsake her,
I honour virtue while I follow guilt,
I love the noble Rivers more than life,
But Julia more than honour.

Julia. Hold? astonishment

Has seal'd my lips; whence sprung this monstrous daring?

Orlando. (Rises.) From despair.

Julia. What can you hope from me?

Orlando. Death! I nor hope, nor look for aught but death.

Think'st thou I need reproof? think'st thou I need

To be reminded that my love's a crime?

That every moral tie forbids my passion,

And angry heaven will show'r its vengeance on me?

But mark—I do not, will not, can't repent;

I do not even wish to love thee less;

I glory in my crime. Come, crown my misery,

Triumph, exult in thy pernicious beauty,

Then stab me with the praises of my rival,

The man on earth—whom most I ought to love.

Julia. I leave thee to remorse, and to that penitence

Thy crime demands. (Going.)

Orlando. A moment stay.

Julia. I dare not.

Orlando. Hear all my rival's worth, and all my guilt,

The unsuspecting Rivers sent me to thee,

To plead his cause; I basely broke my trust,

And, like a villain, pleaded for myself.

Julia. Did he? Did Rivers? Then he loves me still—

Quick let me seek him out.

Orlando. (Takes out the dagger.) First take this dagger,

Had you not forc'd it from my hand to-day,

I had not liv'd to know this guilty moment:

Take it, present it to the happy Rivers,

Tell him to plunge it in a traitor's heart,

Tell him his friend, Orlando, is that traitor,

“Tell him Orlando forg'd the guilty tale,

“Tell him Orlando is the only foe,”

Who at the altar would have murder'd Rivers,

And then have died himself.

Julia. Farewel—repent—think better.

Though we admire the general structure and conduct of this play, candour obliges us to acknowledge, that the fifth act is not equal to the others, the catastrophe being perplexed, inartificial, and attended with some improbable circumstances and events that render it rather disgusting and unnatural: the death of Emmelina is contrary to poetical justice, as involving the innocent

innocent in the same punishment with the guilty; and the spectator would undoubtedly have been better pleased to see Orlando fall by the hand of Rivers, whom he had injured, than by his own.

We cannot conclude this article without observing, that unsuccessful as this tragedy has hitherto been on the stage, it cannot fail giving great pleasure in the closet: we therefore warmly recommend it to the perusal of our readers.

The Times : a Comedy. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal in Drury-Lane. By Mrs. Griffith. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Fielding and Walker.

THAT wicked wit, Sheridan, has, like the foolish bird that bewrays his own nest, destroyed himself and his interest, by writing above the level of his cotemporaries; for, as the inimitable Garrick, whilst he remained on the stage, put us out of humour with almost every other actor, so doth the School for Scandal put us out of conceit with almost every other modern comedy. The piece now before us would, otherwise, probably have met with a very different reception from that which it hath received.—*The Times*, written by Mrs. Griffith, to whom the world has been obliged for some entertaining and much applauded performances, is not without a considerable share of merit; but we have been lately treated, as was just now hinted, with two or three such delicacies, that a good, plain dish, though ever so wholesome, and well-dressed, is disregarded. This comedy, in spite of all its faults and imperfections, is not ill written; the characters, particularly that of Sir W. Woodley, well drawn, and properly sustained; the moral inculcated is an excellent one (which, by the bye, is more than we can say of our friend Brinsley's), and is not inartificially adapted to the present system of manners; the dialogue is, often, sprightly and entertaining, though, sometimes, rather languid. The principal fault of the comedy lies, perhaps, in the fable and its incidents, which is neither new nor sufficiently interesting to engage our attention. The catastrophe is seen from the beginning, and the early discovery of it deprives us too soon of the agreeable sensation with which we love to indulge ourselves in with regard to the conclusion.

The reader, however, we think, will find in the closet something to recompense him for his disappointment on the stage, and will, probably, be of opinion with us, that though *The Times* does not stand in the first rank of modern comedies, it is superior to many that have been more frequently represented, and received a larger portion of fame and profit than the author of this piece has hitherto been fortunate enough to acquire.

The Tutor of Truth. By the Author of the Pupil of Pleasure, &c.
2 vol. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Richardson and Urquhart.

A Work of this author's, entitled, *The Pupil of Pleasure*, exemplified that part of a late celebrated system which led immediately to voluptuousness, hypocrisy, and seduction—the intention of these volumes is to illustrate a much better, as well as a much more brilliant system, the system of integrity and truth.

The hero of this production protects the innocence he might have destroyed, spares the chastity he might have violated, and preserves the wife he might have ruined. He is prudent without deviating from truth; and employs all his fire, spirit, and personal advantages, in the cause of virtue. There is a great variety of characters and incidents interwoven into this agreeable novel, which not only contribute to render the fable interesting, but to enforce the moral, which the author has chosen for a motto, and with which he concludes, viz. 'However hypocrisy may flourish for a time, even its happiest moments are clouded, and truth shall at last prevail.'

The characters of the Hewsons, in this performance, are as laughable as they are original, and place the detestable and detested system of Chesterfieldism in a point of view truly ridiculous.

Mr. Gabriel Hewson to Robert De Grey, Esq.

'Sir,

'My brother (dear to me by affinity of blood, and by the adjoining bonds of a settled friendship) my brother and I, sir, have lately been much enveloped in the deep abyss of meditation. The additions to our fortunes, have, as is too generally the case, brought with them additions of carking care, and perturbed reflection—we find it impossible to enjoy ourselves as we used to do, before the benevolence of fate distinguished us by her splendid favours. My brother is unable to take the salutary exercises of the fields and forests, crown'd with leafy honours; and I, for my part, can find neither gaiety in Horace, nor argument in Tully. We conceive something should be done to make riches sit easy on us. We believe books will not do this for me, nor hounds for him.—In fine, we are solicitous, even to a considerable degree of anxiety, to acquire a relish of those exterior ornaments which so particularly mark you and Captain Carlisle, from all men of our acquaintance. We understand the captain is shortly to be at the Green; and therefore, as your indulging nature has very often pressed upon us an invitation, we could, conjointly, with it might be agreeable to your leisure, and consonant to your convenience, to permit us to pass a few days, under the sanctification of your hospitality while the captain is with you, that we may have the advantage of making ourselves very passable copies from the re-
iterated

iterated imitation of so admirable an original. My brother Henry and I, sir, are very impatient for the honour of your answer to this our consequential request. Sir, I am, your's reverentially,

Gabriel Hewson.

Mr. Henry Hewson to Robert De Grey, Esq.

Hon. Guardian that was,

I understands that Gab has 'form'd you of our resolution to be bettermost persons; whereof the reason's good and natural, seeing that we are not the folks we *was*; seeing we are richer; our *idreers* are no more the same they *was* than any thing, and I *ba* put it *into*'s head to see what hand may be made on us, *supposin* we had a good fightly *moral* before us. For certain, the captain is as fine a pattern as need be taken for any man's *sample*, and you are no small fool at making a bow yourself. You and he, therefore, are the men we mean to cut out by, and my Hetty would have no '*jection* to make a sample of your daughter, who, every body must own, has more the jig of a gentlewoman than any body within ten miles o' *ber*. I send these few lines by Joe, just to clap brother Gab's letter, as it were, on the back, and do the thing more *plitley*; for, certainly, the more *parsons* write to a man out of one family, the more respectful. We understands also that you are to have visitors *go lore*, over and above the captain. *Tbat* we have no sort of '*jection* to: 'case why? We are sure for *sartain*, none are harboured at Prudence Green but your *tip-top specie*. So much the better for *we*; 'case why? As we go on purpose to make a hand on't, and get as much as we can out of every body, why we can take one bit of haviour from one, another bit from another, and so on, till we are *up* to the whole jig of the thing. Hetty is 'ene almost ready to fly over the moon upon *casion* of this—she's a *duced* cute one, at taking any thing in hand she has a mind to, and I *surfspect* she'll pull the feathers out of the fine ones till she's as pretty a bird as the best of them. I'd lay too o' my teeth to a *teester* that she bridles and briggles to a nicety, in less time than I shall want to make me doff hat with decency; for, to tell you the truth, I have a cussed way of being *cover'd* in company; and, I think, it's a pity you was not guardian of my manners, as well as my money.—But I have said enough to shew you what I would be at, and therefore I have no *casion* to make a long affair *ont*, like master Gab, who, I don't doubt, has muddled his brains never so long, to write you a fine long *rigmoral*, and pick and choose words out of *diksannerry*. Mayhap I may be one of your better sort as soon as he, for all his scholarship: not that I would have you *magine*, 'squire, I don't think Gab knows how to handle a pen: but I think a man may talk a little *plainer* than Gab: aye, and *write* a little plainer too, for I do *sure* you, parson of our parish, who put on his gown at *varsity*, has sometimes enough to do to make him *out*, when he writes his *flourididdles* to me, and Hetty says, he is no more fit for *pliteness* than my dog Dashgrove. But this is *ataween* ourselves, 'squire. I have written my paper *all through*,
purpose

purpose 'case you should not be *seeded*, and if it had been more I would *ha'* gone to the end *on't*, I *'sure* you; for you are just the sort of man I like, and, after all, I don't know when I come to set *this* over against *that*, whether I sha'n't take more of the bettermost person from *you*, than from the captain himself. I am, with Hetty's love to miss De Grey,

Your dutiful friend to command, Henry Hewson.

P. S. I think I would not have you say to any of the folks at the Green, what *lay* Gab and I are upon; for, 'tis natural to think, gentlemen and ladies (who have bought breeding and *pliteness* dear) may not choose to have, as it were, their pockets pickt on't, by a couple of chaps who come *a purpose* to carry off the *best part* of 'em. I should not like it myself.

Mr. Medway's is a very original and ludicrous, though, on the whole, an amiable and even respectable character.—We think that captain Carlisle might have perceived sooner, that Lucia had no aversion to him. It is true that love is jealous, and ready to misconstrue, to its own torment, every word or action of its object; but the extreme blindness of Carlisle, in the instance alluded to, seems unnatural, in a man who, even when incidents occur, that in the strongest manner raise his jealousy, or that lead him to believe his passion is hopeless, possesses a degree of recollection, calmness, and self-composure, that borders upon indifference.—The characters, however, on the whole, are well supported, and the Tutor of Truth is a pleasant and instructive companion.

ridentem dicere verum

Quid vetat? —

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Beschreibung des Koenigreichs Slavonien und des Herzogthums Syrmien; or, a Description of the Kingdom of Slavonia and the Duchy of Syrmia; by the late Mr de Taube. Book III. containing the Topography of those Countries. 8vo. Leipzig, (German).

THE former part of this work has already been noticed in our Review. The present contains an accurate topographical account of countries hitherto but very little known abroad.

Lower Slavonia, here described, consists of two parts; the Civil Province, or interior part of the kingdom, inhabited by citizens and country people; and the Military Settlements inhabited by a particular kind of regimented militia; on the frontiers of Turkey.

The Civil Province is divided into three counties, or shires; Bsek, the county-town of Verovitz, is thinly inhabited and subject to all the inconveniencies of a marshy soil. Yet white mulberry trees thrive there, and yield a considerable annual income of about one florin, or two shillings and four-pence each tree. A most expensive stone-road, has of late years been constructed of somewhat more than one English mile and a quarter in length, over swamps, and is said to have cost the enormous sum of six hundred thousand florins.

Syrmia is a most fertile country, abounding in excellent wine, and other rich natural productions, yet still susceptible of very great improvements. The most considerable lordship in it, called Illock, has formerly been granted by Charles VI. to the famous Count Odescalchi; and is now, by its present proprietor, Prince Bracciano at Rome, lett for an annual rent of thirty thousand florins.

The military districts and settlements on the Turkish frontiers, are mountainous, rocky, little cultivated, inhabited, by a militia, exempt from the payment of contributions and tythes; but paying some taxes under other names, for the support of their own officers. Their country has no beggars, but a number of thieves and robbers: great pains have however been taken during these later times, for civilizing its inhabitants. The country inhabited by the regiment of Peterwaradine though exceedingly fertile, is yet so thinly peopled, that a square German league of its very best districts scarce contains above two or three small hamlets, containing altogether hardly forty families. Almost all the citizens of Peterwaradine are Germans; and few of them trades-people. The fortress has cost a very great sum.

Almost all the trade of this district is carried on in the Hungarian town New-Satz, which lies over against Peterwaradine; and having in 1751, been declared a free town, where Christians of whatever sect are allowed a free exercise of their respective religions, now affords a very striking instance of the effects of religious toleration. For though this place in 1751, contained only four thousand inhabitants, their number has since that year increased to more than eight thousand, and still continues increasing.

The Turkish frontier-place Gradiska, has, at the desire of the Turks, been strongly and regularly fortified by French engineers.

These countries formerly abounded with a variety of remarkable antiquities, now defaced or destroyed by their illiterate and barbarous inhabitants.

Aristoteles und Basedow, oder Fragmente über Erziehung und Schulwesen bey den Alten und Neuern, von Aristotele und Basedow; or Fragments on Education and Schools, among the Ancients and Moderns; by Frederick Gedicke, Prof. at the Gymnasium of Frederickswerder at Berlin. 8vo. Berlin. (German.)

THE short instructive book consists partly of translations, and partly of original Essays. The valuable fragments concerning education, here collected, translated and commented on, are drawn from Aristotle, Plato, Quintilian, a supposed Letter from Theano the wife of Pythagoras, and a passage from Gellius, concerning nurses. All these fragments are well chosen, faithfully translated, and illustrated with judicious notes and remarks.

The original essays treat of the methods of teaching children to read; of the study of languages in general; of that of the Greek and Latin tongues in particular; of the most essential requisites for the improvement of schools; and of the means of raising the revenues required for the expence of these essential improvements.

Mr. Gedicke thinks the Greek language ought to have been preferred to the Latin, for the purpose of a general and common language for the learned; and that even now, children after having made a tolerable progress in their own native languages, ought to be taught Greek before Latin; but not to begin with the Greek New Testament, nor to be accustomed to translate Greek into Latin.

The

The best means for improving education and schools, in his opinion, would be to raise the salaries and rank of school-masters; to separate schools designed for the learned, from these designed for common professions; and to establish a supreme board or department for the general direction of all the schools of a state.

To these translations and original essays, Mr. Gedicke has subjoined an Ode of the celebrated Professor Basedow, at Dessau, a gentleman highly distinguished by his enthusiastic philanthropy, by his active zeal and persevering and not unsuccessful exertions, for the reformation of schools, and the improvement of education: *clarum olim et venerabile nomen!*

Von der Güte und Weisheit Gottes in der Natur: or, The Goodness and Wisdom of God in Nature; considered by Henry Sander. 1 Vol. 8vo. Carlruhe. (German.)

A Very eloquent, instructive, and meritorious contemplation on the divine perfection, as displayed in the creation and government of the world: treating, among a variety of other subjects, of the immensity of the creation; the general concatenation of things; agriculture and clothing necessarily entering into the plan of nature; that the government and providence of God necessarily direct and influence the smallest as well as the greatest objects in nature: immense riches of nature; distribution of natural productions, especially of animals and vegetables; uses of rocks in the sea; arrangements of different countries; seeds of plants; care of nature for cold countries, Iceland, for instance, Kamptschatka, Lapland, Greenland, &c. real importance of a variety of seeming trifles to nature; of mosses, shrubs, lakes, mountains, forests, mines, grasses, marine plants, insects; natural revolutions.

All these, and many other subjects, are here contemplated and displayed, enforced and applied, with such a degree of acuteness, and such a warmth of eloquence, as to do equal credit to the author's mind and heart.

Leben, Thaten, Reisen und Tod eines sehr klugen und sehr artigen Vier-jährigen Kindes; or, the Life, Actions, Travels, and Death of a Child, very sensible and well behaved, four Years of Age; Christian Henry Heineken, of Lübeck, recorded by his Teacher, Christian de Sehoeneich. 8vo. 15 Sheets. Goettinguen and Lübeck. (German.)

THE child, whose life is here minutely recorded, was indeed one of the most memorable phenomena the world ever beheld. He was born at Lubeck, Feb. 6, 1721, and died there, June 17, 1723; after having displayed the most amazing proofs of intellectual talents. He had not completed his first year of life, when he already knew and recited the principal facts contained in the five books of Moses, with a number of verses on the creation. In his fourteenth month he knew all the history of the Bible; in his thirtieth month, the history of the nations of antiquity, geography, anatomy, the use of maps, and nearly eight thousand Latin words: before the end of his third year, the history of Denmark, and the genealogy of the crowned heads of Europe; in his fourth year, the doctrines of divinity, with their proofs from the Bible; ecclesiastical history; the Institutions; two hundred hymns with their tunes; eighty Psalms; entire chapters of the Old and New Testament; fifteen hundred

verses and sentences from ancient Latin classics; almost the whole *Orbis Pictus* of Comenius, whence he had derived all his knowledge of the Latin tongue; arithmetics; the history of the European empires and kingdoms; could point out in the maps whatever place he was asked for, or passed by in his journies, and recite all the ancient and modern historical anecdotes relating to it. His stupendous memory caught and preserved every word he was told: his ever active imagination used, at whatever he saw or heard, instantly to apply, according to the laws of association of ideas, some examples or sentences from the Bible, from geography, from profane or ecclesiastical history, from the *Orbis Pictus*, or from ancient classics. At the court of Denmark he delivered twelve speeches, without once faltering; and underwent public examinations on a variety of subjects, especially the history of Denmark. He spoke German, Latin, French, and Low Dutch, and was exceedingly good natured and well-behaved, but of a most tender and delicate bodily constitution; never ate any solid food, but chiefly subsisted on nurse's milk; and, notwithstanding his weak state of health, sought all his satisfaction, pleasure, and amusement, in the acquisition of knowledge.

What a pity that the imprudent parents and teachers of so admirable a child, probably from avaricious motives, could strain his mental faculties, in so tender an age, and so weak a state of health, to such a degree and variety of premature, preposterous, and useless exertions, as must necessarily have exhausted his strength and shortened his life!

He was celebrated all over Europe, under the name of the Learned Child of Lübeck. He died at the age of four years, four months, twenty days, and twenty-one hours; and his death was recorded in a number of periodical papers: but his native place, Lübeck, erected no monument to this prodigy of nature.

Von dem Geschlechts-Adel, und der Erneuerung des Adels; or, Of Hereditary Nobility, and its Renewal. 8vo. Berlin. (German.)

THE anonymous author begins his dissertation with defining the nature and true foundation of nobility; and observes, against M. de Montesquieu, that hereditary nobility is, properly speaking, no essential constituent part of any form of government. It exists, however, not only among polished but also among rude and uncultivated nations. The European, and especially the German nobility, considered as a distinct order, appear to be coeval with their respective nations themselves. The first instances of grants of the inferior ranks of nobility by sovereigns, occur in France, in 1285 and 1290; in England, according to Thomas Rymer, in 1361; And in Germany the creation of gentry, or inferior ranks of nobility, appears to have been introduced by Charles IV. The various degrees of the imperial creation of nobility in Germany, are modern inventions, and not founded in the original constitution of the old German nobility. All the creations are, strictly speaking, valid only in the dominions of the sovereign by whom they are performed; yet from mutual courtesy, acknowledged by other princes also; though, in order to admit such foreign noblemen to the enjoyment of real prerogatives in their dominions, they often require them to be naturalized.

The author then proceeds to the prerogatives, whether common to all noblemen, or exclusively reserved, and peculiar to the ancient

cient nobility; remarks, that nobility, as being a privilege limited to any particular person or family, cannot be transferred, but may be resigned either explicitly, or tacitly, by the choice of some ignoble profession. And finally, by what means it is lost, impaired, or renewed.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Nic. Jos. Jacquin, *Miscellanea Austriaca, ad Botanicam, Chemicam, et Historiam Naturalem spectantia, cum Figuris partim coloratis. Vol. I. 4to. With Plates. (Vienna.)*

CONTAINING chiefly: I. Genitalia Asclepiadearum. II. Compositiones Medicamentorum pharmaceuticæ generales. III. Sempervivum sediforme monstruosum Jacquinii. IV. Fungi quidam sub Alpini, Jacquinii. V. Franc. Xav. Wulfen, Plantæ rariores Carinthiacæ: viz. *Draba Fladnicensis; Cordamine bellicifolia; Astragalus Uralensis; Saxifraga Burseriana; Ranunculus Pyrenæus; Cineraria Alpina; Auricula Ursi* II. VI. *Agaricum Officinale, Dist. Fre. Rubel; emendata et aucta.* VII. *Aqua Aëria Pragensis; excerpta ex Dist. Jo. Mich. Hornstein.*

Von den Ahndungen und Visionen; Of Forebodings and Visions. 8vo. Leipzig. (German.)

The judicious author of this treatise has, with great industry and attention, collected and classed a number of instances of Visions, Forebodings, Dreams, Divinations, &c. from ancient and modern books; and, with great caution and modesty, endeavoured to trace and illustrate the natural causes of all these singular effects and phenomena.

Versuch einer Geschichte des Tempel Herren Ordens; or, an Essay of an History of the Order of Templars. 8vo. Leipzig. (German.)

An impartial, instructive, concise and entertaining history of an order cruelly extirpated by greedy sovereigns, and basely calumniated and condemned by many historians, from tenderness to the memory of its persecutors.

C. Pedonis Albinovani *Elegia in Mortem Drusi Neronis. Varietate Lætionis & Indice Philologico illustravit Jo. Christoph. Bremer. 8vo. Helmstadii.*

The short critical notes, borrowed from Heinsius's and Burman's editions, are here printed under the text, and sometimes appreciated by the editor. The Philological Index consists chiefly of the remarks of Clericus, Burman, and other critics. And Pet. Burman's and Fr. Aug. Wideburg's Dissertations on this poet, have been prefixed.

Centum Ænigmata Vetera diu sub Symposii Poetæ Nomine circumlata, deinde a nonnullis tanquam Symposium a Lactantio conscriptum editi. Recensuit, illustravit, atque præfatus est M. Joan. Frider. Heynatz 8vo. Francfurt on the Oder.

The editor confutes in his preface, Heumannu's opinion, who supposes these Ænigmata to have been composed by Lactantius. He has corrected the text, and subjoined a short and satisfactory solution to each ænigma, and some valuable critical notes.

Die Unendlichkeit des Welt-Schoepfers; or, the Infinity of the Creator of the Universe. By Dr. Lewis Crell. 8vo. Helmitædt. (German.)

A short, profound, yet perspicuous and highly meritorious meditation.

Kunst-Gewerb-und Handwerks-Geschichte der Reichs-Stadt Augsburg; or, History of Arts, Trade, and mechanical Professions, in the Imperial City of Augsburgh, By Paul de Stetten, Junior. 8vo. Augsburgh. (German.)

This writer has carefully and minutely traced and related the rise, progress, and state of various arts, at Augsburgh, from authentic records, down to the present times.

Weber den Vernunft-schluss; on Syllogism. By J. F. Mayer. Vol. I. 8vo. Vienna. (German.)

The author has traced the operations of the human mind in argumentations, with great acuteness and judgment, and means to unite perspicuity and sprightliness of diction with profundity of thought.

M. Jeremias David Reufs, Beschreibung einiger Handschriften aus der Universitäts-Bibliothek zu Tübingen nebst Anzeige der Verschiedenen Lesarten; or, an Account of some MSS. in the University's Library at Tubingen, with a Notice of their various Readings. 8vo. Tübingen. (German.)

The MSS. here minutely described, contain some considerable parts of the History of Polybius, collated by Mr. Reufs, with the editions published by Casaubon, Herwagius, and Ernesti; and about ten or twelve verses of the first chapter of the Gospel of St. John.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, POLITICAL.

The Detail and Conduct of the American War, under Generals Gage, Howe, Burgoyne, and Vice Admiral Lord Howe, &c. 8vo. Richardson and Urquhart.

THIS pamphlet comprises a full collection of the various charges that are said to have given rise to the enquiry into the conduct of the war, with the evidence given at the bar of the house of commons, and such strictures as have been made during the course, and since the close of that enquiry. The whole is intended to exhibit a complete view of the facts and observations relative to the prosecution of the war.

An Enquiry into and Remarks upon the Conduct of Lieutenant-General Burgoyne. 8vo. 1s. Mathews.

The author of this Enquiry affirms, that after the campaign of 1776, general Burgoyne presented government with a plan, in detail, for the operation of an army proposed to march from Quebec; at the same time begging the command, and pledging himself for the success of the enterprize. In answer to what general Burgoyne alledges, that an alteration was made in the plan

plan he had drawn up, the author farther affirms, that the general did not object to it at the time, and likewise that he has no reason to complain of it now, as it was no more than adopting the most practicable part of the alternative he had proposed, in exclusion of the more arduous one.

The author afterwards, with great force of argument, invalidates the plea produced by general Burgoyne, respecting the positive nature of the instructions he had received; the former strongly contending that general Burgoyne was necessarily vested with a discretionary power, and therefore became answerable for the fatal consequences of his conduct.

Renewal without Violence yet possible. 8vo. 6d. Longman.

This author, taking it for granted that the affairs of Great Britain are at present in a distracted situation, in which they cannot long remain, proposes, as a remedy, that the several distinct parts of the British empire, Ireland, America, and even the East-India settlements, should be firmly united as confederate states with Great Britain; and that each of the remote members should send a certain number of representatives to sit in the British parliament. We meet with some other crude hints respecting the improvement of the constitution, which, we apprehend, cannot be easily reduced to practice.

A Defence of an Act of Parliament lately passed for the Relief of Roman Catholics. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

This is written in answer to a pamphlet, entitled, 'An Appeal from the Protestant Association to the People of Great Britain, &c.' The author makes many just remarks on the arguments contained in the Appeal, and endeavours to evince that the notions entertained by the association respecting the consequence of the act in favour of the Roman Catholics, are entirely void of foundation. His principles are liberal, and he writes with candour and good sense.

Occasional Letters upon Taxation; &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Doddsley.

These Letters were formerly published separately in an Evening paper, and are now reprinted in this collection. The author sets out with observing, that we can no longer extend taxation upon articles of general consumption, for fear of affecting our manufacturers in such a manner, as to make it impossible for them to supply foreign markets upon so low terms as their rivals in trade of other nations; and when a farther extension of taxes upon luxury would induce people of fortune to seek a country where they might enjoy the elegancies of life at an easier rate than at home. To supply the exigences of government, on supporting which the security of the funds depends, he *imagines* that the stockholders, might be induced, conditionally, to remit *one or two* per cent. of their capitals. This, he says, would produce more than two millions and a half, at the present price of stocks, and each individual would only feel a diminution of

the fiftieth part of his income.—It is not to be presumed, however, that the stockholders would make a voluntary gift of this nature, without they were under much greater apprehensions for the safety of the nation than the present circumstances will justify.

Besides what is above suggested, the author throws out some hints on the expediency and practicability of raising the supplies within the year.

A Letter to the Whigs. 8vo. 1s. Almon.

The writer of this Letter begins with giving an account of his creed, in which he tells us that he is a whig, and a friend to liberty; that he is a disciple of Mr. Locke; and that he abhors and reprobates the ideas of passive obedience and non-resistance. He might have added, that he is an enemy to septennial parliaments, and the qualification-act. But whatever may be his principles, his object in the present Letter, is evidently to excite an association for procuring a redress of various grievances which he supposes to exist. The pamphlet seems intended as an incentive to the county meetings.

Substance of political Debates on his Majesty's Speech on the Address, and Amendment, Nov. 25, 1779. With Remarks on the State of the Irish Claim to a free Trade. 8vo. 1s. Faulder.

This pamphlet appears to be written by an enemy to opposition, the motives of which he represents in no favourable light. A few remarks are added on the state of the Irish claim to a free trade; but these may now be considered as a subject of little importance.

An Address to the Representatives in Parliament upon the State of the Nation. 8vo. 1s. Almon.

The author of this Address endeavours to dissuade the members of parliament from granting supplies for the continuance of the war, which he represents in the hackneyed character of being unnatural and ruinous to the nation.

An Address to the Freeholders of Middlesex, assembled at the Free Mason's Tavern, in Great Queen-street, upon Monday, Dec. 20, 1779. 8vo. 6d. Cadell.

This Address relates to the meeting in Great Queen-street, and contains an exhortation to the freeholders for supporting the freedom of election.

M E D I C A L.

An Answer to the Letter addressed by Francis Riollay, Physician of Newbury, to James Hardy, Physician of Barnstaple. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

In this letter Dr. Hardy examines the objections made by Dr. Riollay respecting the opinion he had intimated, in his treatise on the Devonshire colic, that the gout originates from the action of mineral substances. The remarks and arguments which

Dr.

Dr. Hardy produces, are strongly enforced; and if they do not fully establish his opinion, they at least invalidate the objections suggested by Dr. Riollay. The author also, in the course of his observations, presents us with additional proof in support of what he had asserted to be the cause of the Devonshire colic.

P O E T R Y.

The Vision: a Poem, on the Death of Lord Lyttelton. 4to. 1s. Millidge.

It is a pity that such *Visions* as these should ever appear, as they can answer no good end or purpose. The author, however, has (in his preface) let us into a secret, which we suppose he had from the ghost, that is rather extraordinary, viz. that the late lord Lyttelton, of pious memory, was undoubtedly made away with by the present administration, that he might not tell tales of them; but, as he charitably observes,

‘—The annals of every age furnish us with many instances wherein the apprehensions of the guilty have precipitated them into the commission of the foulest crimes, in order to remove those who might be the means of bringing them to condign and public punishment.

‘At a moment when ministry has every thing to dread from an insulted people, no honest man is safe from their machination; for a set of men who can uniformly persevere in the destruction of their sovereign, and the rights and privileges of their countrymen, will not hesitate to perpetrate secret crimes. The day which lord Lyttelton had appointed for a discovery of those diabolical proceedings, which he could no longer behold without horror, (and which intention he had announced in the most solemn manner to his confidential friends,) was too big with the fate of ministers and England to be suffered to dawn upon his virtuous purpose.’

The poem then opens and informs us, that at a certain hour of night

‘When darkness reign’d with universal sway.’

‘When N--th lay trembling at approaching light.’

‘When F-x lay bleeding in his country’s cause.’

After these, and about a hundred and fifty more *rubens*, full of compliments to the patriots and abuse of every body else, comes the vision, stands by my lord’s bed-side, and cries,

‘Assert thyself, restore thy drooping fame,

And to eternal bliss put in thy claim.’

The author of this piece may, for aught we know, put in his claim to the character of a poet; but if he can produce no better verses than are to be found in the *Vision*, he will never acquire it.

The Sea-Fight; an Elegiac Poem, from Henry to Laura. By Charles Shillito. 4to. 1s. 6d. Doddsley.

Most title-pages, like quack advertisements, promise more than they perform. We assure the public, that Mr. Shillito is, in this respect, no quack; for here, ladies and gentlemen, you have much more than you expected from the title. Here is ‘breathed a’ whole ‘history of woe,’ the loves of Henry and Laura.

Laura.—Here you are told *as how* Henry was a lord's son, and Laura a farmer's daughter; and that they were *desperately* in love with each other.—*As how* L. was very fond of kissing; so that she not only amused herself that way in her waking hours, but be-kissed poor H. in her dreams. She kisses him when alive, and he tells us will do the same when he is dead; and, not yet contented, like an impudent gipsy, vows they '*will* kiss in heaven.' We are informed, that H.'s father got him pressed, and carried aboard a tender; though he talked to the press-gang '*in no vulgar strain*,' and '*swore* the peasant's garb conceal'd a lord.' He was put aboard a man of war, where he is seized with a sudden, and most violent fit of valour, and '*swears*' a vile Pagan oath '*by all the powers in yon Cærulean sky*,' that he '*will* die for Albion:' and then, this insipid, *long* story is concluded with a very *short* sea fight indeed! In a stanza or two he blows up one '*mighty vessel*,' and sinks another '*gallant ship*' by a single broadside. Believing that this melancholy story had thrown Laura into hysterics, he '*breaks the thread of his unhappy tale*;' promising to '*resume it in some future hour*,' when '*sweetly seated in some green alcove*.' By way of consolation, he assures her that '*each sudden pause shall speak excessive love*, and frequent kisses interrupt the tale.'

This, ladies and gentlemen, is a sketch of your entertainment; but the detail, the finishing of the piece, is still more wonderful. Here '*the calm sea*' is desired to '*swell fair as her (Laura's) form*'—read *large*, nostro periculo. There a '*lovely cheek betrays*'—you would imagine some passion or desire of the soul—no, no such common occurrence—it *betrays* '*a crimson veil*!' There a billet-doux '*pours dear stanzas*!' and a '*wounded lover*' is metamorphosed into a hen! and *lays* on the '*green turf*!'

'On that green turf where last we careless play'd—
—Ev'n there, sweet maid! thy wounded lover laid.'

There you find, on board a tender, a good orthodox Christian, who prays he may be one of the *elect*; and a reprobate Papist, that curses the whole catalogue of saints; who both join in a concert of '*oaths*' and '*prayers*,' and keep excellent time.

'Another sued for heav'n's *peculiar* care,
A third would deal a *curse* to ev'ry saint;
'Till ev'ry oath kept time with ev'ry pray'r.'

And there Henry '*swears* an '*inexorable oath*' (by the bye, he is too much given to *swearing*, which smells strong of the fore-castle) that he '*will die for Albion*,' when we see, through the whole of the poem, he wishes, and even *expects* to *live* for Laura.

D R A M A T I C.

The Shepherdess of the Alps: a Comic Opera, in Three Acts. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal in Covent-Garden. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Kearsly.

The Italian opera has been long favoured by an indulgent public with the exclusive privilege of setting nonsense to music, with

with impunity: Signior Dibdini, as an enemy to monopolies, has, in the piece before us, thought proper to extend it to the tasteful regions of a British theatre, where the adoption of this mode has not, we find, met with that degree of applause which the author had probably expected. The piece has, it seems, notwithstanding all its musical merit, been nipped in the bud, and is already totally lost and extinguished.—We are not, to say the truth, in the least surprised at the sudden death of the poor Shepherdess of the Alps, as it is undoubtedly one of the poorest and most contemptible pieces, considered as a publication, that ever disgraced an English stage, the whole consisting of a bald, literal, vulgar translation of Marmontel, joined to an awkward affectation of wit and humour, in the characters of Guillot and Triste. Our readers need not be told, as it has been repeated in almost every news-paper, that this opera is founded on Marmontel's elegant tale, which is so admirably constructed, that a very little art and management might have moulded it into a pleasing comic, or rather pastoral opera: but this is a task which Mr. D. or whoever fabricated this performance for him, was very unequal to. We advise him, therefore, as he is undoubtedly a very ingenious composer, to stick entirely to his music, and leave the business of writing to abler hands.

The Mirror; or, Harlequin Every-where: a Pantomimical Burletta, in Three Parts. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal in Covent-Garden. 8vo. 1s. Kearsly.

This Mirror, though it does not reflect any great honour on the maker, may serve well enough to decorate a pantomime, where the sing-song does not require much wit or humour to adorn it. The pantomimical burletta has no object in view but to make us laugh; and whether it be by sense or nonsense, if the end is answered, the work is complete: as such we recommend the Mirror to our readers, by way of pocket-glass, to be carried with them whenever this diverting pantomime is performed.

N O V E L S.

The Generous Sister. In a Series of Letters. By Mrs. Cartwright. 2 vols. 5s. sewed. Bew.

The generosity of this lady consists in marrying, in order to please her father, and to bless her sister, a rich old lord, who makes a very good husband.—There seems nothing very wonderful in this: there are many ladies, we presume, in this great metropolis, capable of equal condescension.—The artifices and horrors of the Stanhopean system are emphatically described in the story of miss Donaldson, miss Warburton, and sir William Dunbar.

The Relapse. 2 vol. 5s. sewed. Lowndes.

A lively description of the wanderings of an inconstant heart, with the miseries that flow from conjugal infidelity and the grati-

gratification of criminal desires.—Among the numerous pictures, exhibited to the world by novelists, of amiable and accomplished women, few, in our opinion, excel that of Louisa Sedley.

The Indiscreet Marriage. By Miss Nugent and Miss Taylor, of Twickenham. 3 vols. 7s. 6d. sewed. Dodsley.

Surprisingly well! for two ladies, 'whose ages together do not exceed thirty years.' To masters and misses about their own age, the work will probably appear not a little entertaining.—There is a very singular character in this juvenile performance, that of Mrs. Plomer, who discloses the most secret sentiments and emotions of a very bad heart with the freedom of a Cardan. With all the disposition to be gentle to young female authors, we cannot but censure such grammatical inaccuracies as these: 'subjecting Alicia and I [me]—*who* [whom] we soon cleared—every body will be going to town, and *them* [they] no doubt among the rest—Henry and *her* [she] will write a few days hence—both *him* [he] and my aunt seem excessively charmed with lord Selwyn.'—

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Rochester in the Year 1779. By John Law, D. D. 4to. 1s. Payne.

The venerable bench of bishops having, by their silence, given consent to an act passed last year in favour of the Roman Catholics, Mr. Archdeacon Law (a gentleman whom we never heard of before as figuring in the republic of letters) being probably of opinion, that in ecclesiastical as well as political matters, the safest way is always to swim with the tide, endeavours in this Charge to recommend himself to his superiors, by strenuously defending the act above-mentioned, and exhorting the clergy of the diocese which he presides over, to an implicit submission to, and a hearty approbation of it.—Whether this act of parliament may, or may not, be attended with any ill consequences to the protestant religion, we cannot pretend to determine, as much may undoubtedly be said on both sides. Most certain, however, it is, that better arguments might be advanced in its favour, than any which the archdeacon has here produced, his Charge being a very barren and shallow performance.

The Kentish Curate's Letter to the Rev. Mr. Archdeacon Law, on his Defence of Popery. As delivered in his Charge to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Rochester. 4to. 1s. T. Davies.

Corruptio uniús, say the philosophers, est generatio alterius: the dulness of the preceding article has produced the wit and humour of this, in which the ingenious author has most severely lashed his antagonist. Irony is a sharp and dangerous weapon, which very few moderns, since the days of Swift and Arbuthnot, have known how to make a proper use of: the writer of this Letter seems, however, to handle it in a most scientific manner,

or rather, indeed, to be a perfect master of it. Religious controversies are generally carried on with a degree of unbecoming warmth, and acrimonious zeal, that is extremely disgusting; we are therefore much obliged to an author who will treat a subject of this nature with pleasantry and good humour, which is much more likely to reconcile the different opinions concerning it than declamation and invectives.

The Kentish Curate sets out with an excellent story, and ends with one which is still better. We shall give our readers the head and the foot, from which they may in some measure judge of, and we doubt not will be glad to look at, the whole figure:

The letter begins thus:

'The heart lying on the right side, says the physician in Moliere—On the *right* side? replies the patient; I always thought it was on the *left*. No, rejoins the doctor; formerly, I grant, it was so; but at present we go upon another system; *the College have altered it*. With this excellent reason, the patient, as in duty bound, remained perfectly satisfied; and in cases of the like nature every man *should* be so. There was a time, Mr. Archdeacon, though I believe not within your memory, when the reformed religion of this country and the Protestant establishment were deemed matters of the utmost concern and importance; when it would have been thought very extraordinary for any clergyman, and more especially a dignitary in the church of England, to have stood forth as a champion for Popery, but

Tempora mutantur, nos et mutamur in illis.

Things indeed are mightily changed of late; a new system prevails; as Moliere says, *the College have altered it*, and we must rest contented.'

The Kentish Curate proceeds in a vein of irony, makes some excellent applications and remarks, tells two or three arch stories, and concludes thus:

'A famous keeper of wild beasts took it into his head that he could easily subdue the ferocity of a lion, provided that he began time enough. He accordingly brought up a whelp of that species with the greatest care; and at length made him so tame and familiar, that at the age of maturity he could play any tricks with him, pat him on the back, provoke, and even put his head into his mouth with impunity. Trying, however, one day the latter experiment before some friends who stood at a distance, one of them observed that the beast looked extremely fierce. No matter, cried the keeper from within the lion's mouth.—He extends his claws.—No matter—Does he wag his tail?—He does.—Then Lord have mercy upon me—and immediately the lion bit his head off.

And now, Mr. Archdeacon, to apply, as we say in our sermons, and conclude:

'The Roman Catholic lion is a dangerous kind of beast, or at least used to be reckoned so; we pared his claws indeed, and filed his teeth, but in time they are apt to grow again. If he looks fierce, no matter; if he extends his claws, no matter; but if he should chance (which God forbid!) to wag his tail—why then, as the keeper said—Lord have mercy upon us!

We

We shall make no more quotations from this letter, as we would not wish to anticipate our reader's pleasure in the perusal of it; only observing, that, after what we have said, those who do not purchase a look over this little

Tota merum sal,

either have no risible muscles, or do not chafe to make use of them.

A Letter to the right worshipful William Wynne, LL. D. Chancellor of the Diocese of London. Containing, Observations on the Facts alledged, the Evidence produced, and the Sentence pronounced by him, in the Consistorial Court of London, on the 6th of December, 1779, in a Cause in which Dr. Hind, the late Rector of St. Ann, Westminster, was the Promoter, and his Curate the Respondent. By the rev. Thomas Martyn.

So can I give no Reason, nor I will not,
More than a lodged hate, and a certain loathing
I bear ANTHONIO, that I follow thus
A losing Suit against him. SHYLOCK.

8vo. 1s. Almon.

This is a kind of *provoco ad populum*, or appeal to the people, from the judgement of Dr. Wynne, pronounced by him in the cause so long litigated between Dr. Hind and his curate, which if our readers are not already acquainted with, it is not at present worth our while to enter into a detail of.

longa est injuria, longæ

Ambages—

Suffice it, therefore, to let them know, that Mr. Martyn, in the pamphlet before us, seems to think himself much aggrieved by the sentence passed upon him, and complains that, 'as the race is not always to the swift, nor the battle to the strong,—so, judicial determinations are not always on the side of right.' He was acquitted, it seems, in the ecclesiastical court, of the crimes of drunkenness, adultery, neglects, and indecencies, which the rector had laid to his charge; but brought in guilty of acting in defiance of Dr. Hind, opposing him in the execution of his office, and preventing him from preaching, praying, &c. The latter offence, had the congregation been the judges, instead of Dr. Wynne, would, probably, have been considered as venial: that, however, not being the case, Mr. Martin was condemned to pay the costs of suit, and to be deemed a culprit, who, as the sentence ran, 'ought to be removed from the curacy,' which we hear he has accordingly resigned. The case of Mr. Martyn, by what we can learn, from this and some other publications, appears to be rather hard, and the prosecution against him to border a little on malice and oppression.

The Letter, though apparently dictated by no small degree of acrimony, is spirited and well written.

Cass

Cash Tables at Five Pounds and Fifteen Pounds per Cent. on the Duties of Excise and Malt. By John Croft. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

Seemingly accurate and useful.

An Answer to the Criticism in the Monthly Review for October 1779, on a Pamphlet lately published, called Seventy-four Cases. By W. Rowley, M. D. 8vo. No Publisher's Name or Price.

Dr. Rowley thinking himself injuriously treated by some insinuations contained in the above mentioned criticism, against the authenticity of the facts which he had related, appeals to the public in this answer; producing the names and places of abode of those whom he had cured, and also specifying many respectable personages by whom the patients had been recommended.

Catalogue

of

Mr. Capell's Shakesperiana;

Presented by him to

Trinity College

Cambridge,

and printed from an exact copy of his own

MS.

1779. [No Publisher, or Price.]

This general title is back'd by the following edict and enumeration of manuscripts.

'June 26, 1779.

'Ordered by the master and seniors, agreeably to the express desire of Mr. Capel, that the whole collection given by him be kept together in the same class; and that no manuscript or book belonging to it be taken out of the library on any pretence whatever.

'J. Peterborough, M. C.

'MSS.

- '1. "Shakespeare," by E. C. 6 vols. 4°.
- '2. "N. & V R." belonging to it, and the } 3 vols. 4°.
'"School of Shakespeare," by d° }
(containing in them besides, — a "General Glossary" to his plays, of the order and time of writing them, a treatise; a "Brief Essay on Verse," as of his modelling; the "Notitia Dramatica;" and "Anecdotes of Sir John Fastolfe of Caestre in Norfolk," by Lord Dacre.
- '3. Milton's "Paradise lost," by E. C. 4°.
(at the end of it, — a Treatise on Letters, intitl'd "Hermes," &c. and a "Vocabulary of the Poem mark'd.
- '4. Prolusions, or Select Pieces of ancient Poetry," by E. C. 2 vols. 4°. small.
- '5. "Shakespeare's Poems," by E. C. 8°.

* The 4 remaining articles are not yet deposited in the Library."

Here

Here succeeds a second title, viz.

"Catalogue
of a Collection intitl'd Shakesperiana;
comprehending

All the several Editions of the works of Shakespeare,
old and new, divers rare old Editions of writers prose-
men and verse-men; with a variety of other Articles,
chiefly such as tend to illustrate him;—

made by his last editor, E. C.

and by him deposited in the library of Trinity College
in Cambridge, this eleventh day of June in the year
1779."

This pamphlet, consisting of a sheet and a half, we received by the Penny-Post, unaccompanied with either card or letter. If it be a performance designed hereafter for general inspection, we are obliged by so early a sight of it. But if a few copies of it only are printed off, for the use or entertainment of particular readers, (which we suspect to be the case) we know not why the editor, or any of his friends, should wish to have a work characterised to the publick, in which the publick will have so little interest. We shall therefore content ourselves with observing, that the *Catalogue* before us contains 363 articles, comprized in 245 volumes, together with a list of *Desiderata*, and the three subsequent pieces of information, the value of which we submit to the judgment of our readers.

"MS. Note in Mr. Capell's Copy of Hanmer's Shakespeare, 4°.

"These books were a present to the rev^d. Arthur Kynnesman (head master of a school which he rais'd to the greatest splendor, and maintain'd in that splendor for half a century,—the school of St. Edmond's Bury) from his friend and patron, their editor: and came to their now-possessor E. C. by bequest of that gentleman, in a will, which honours his grateful scholar with title of—The true restorer of Shakespeare."

Mar. 26, 1774.

• MS. Note in Capell's Shakespeare, Vol. 1.

"N. B. In marking the poet's numbers, as is done in this copy, it was not perceiv'd 'till too late—that *breves* were not necessary, and the copy is something blemish'd by effacing those *breves*: nor is the marking so otherwise perfect as could be wish'd in all places, being a first essay, and there may be mistakes in it. 'Tis of the year 69. E. C."

• MS. note on the title-page of the Letter to George Hardinge Esq^r 1777.

"Seen through the press by Mr H—ge: Note in p. 18, added and the Postscript new moulded by him. E. C."

From the last memorandum, it should seem that part of this Letter was written by the gentleman to whom it is addressed.

